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on Higher Education

Studies and Research

The Management of International Cooperation in Universities

Six Countries Case Studies
and an Analysis

by Geoffrey Caston

A Study undertaken within the framework of the UNESCO/ACU-CHEMS Joint Action Plan in Higher Education Management

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Since the inception of the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme in 1991, one main aim has been to foster the involvement of the NGO community specialized in higher education. Their experience brings a most valuable contribution to the conception and implementation of inter-institutional co-operation projects to benefit universities in the developing world. The NGOs of the Collective Consultation on Higher Education have responded wholeheartedly to this call for enhanced collaboration with the result that a number of dynamic joint projects have been established with UNESCO.

The UNESCO/ACU-CHEMS Programme for Institutional Development is an excellent example. The promotion of higher education management capacities is a cornerstone of the UNITWIN/UNESCO Chairs Programme and thus stands to gain much from the extensive expertise of the ACU-CHEMS Programme in this regard. In 1994-1995, the joint programme undertook research and training activities around five major themes:

- Strategic Planning (including Strategic Planning Guidelines)
- Higher Education Management Information Systems (HEMIS)
- Middle Management Development and Training Needs
- Management of International Co-operation in Higher Education
- Private Post-Secondary Education.

The present report studies the phenomenon of Internationalization across six case studies from Commonwealth countries. Each presents the current national or regional climate where international activities are receiving greater emphasis. This is most useful as the diverse reasons driving inter-university co-operation must be clearly understood. The report then proceeds to discuss the specific strategies used by universities to ensure their participation in international co-operation.

The excellence of this document is assured by the variety of the material presented and the depth of its analysis. For this reason, it constitutes an important step forward in UNESCO’s promotion of the research and training necessary for the success of international activities.

UNESCO wishes to thank ACU-CHEMS for its intellectual and practical co-operation in this useful project designed to strengthen management capacities in higher education institutions.

Marco Antonio R. Dias
Director
Division of Higher Education
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Preface

It is very fitting that one of the main topics to be studied under ACU’s collaborative program with UNESCO should be international cooperation between universities. When one adds in the specialist interests of CHEMS (the Commonwealth Higher Education Management Service) to the study, it is easy to see why there is a focus on the management of cooperation.

This report looks at the developing situation in a number of Commonwealth countries. These have been deliberately chosen to cover a wide range of cultures and economies. From the developed world we learn about the experiences of Canada and Australia, from one of the emerging Tigers we turn to Malaysia, from a sub-continent there is a report from India and finally we learn about regional aspects of the topic from East Africa and from the Pacific. In each of the six chapters there is a case study showing how one institution is handling its international activities.

UNESCO has already pioneered in the field with a similar study commissioned from the IAU four years ago (Guy Neave: Institutional Management of Higher Education; Trends, Needs and Strategies for Cooperation) in which eight case studies were presented. These were then used to help UNESCO itself decide a strategy for its UNITWIN programme. This report has a different objective since its audience is the institutional manager who is keen to learn about the issues and decide how to manage international activities within an institution. For such a person there is a rich mine of options, ranging from the comprehensive, structured style of the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology to the more permissive approach of the University of the South Pacific. Yet in the latter the international activities are as complex and as central to the institution’s own strategy as in RMIT.

In the next stage of this project UNESCO and CHEMS will move on to work with other agencies concerned with internationalisation to use the materials in this report as a basis for training programmes. International activities are getting more and more centre stage; as Geoffrey Caston’s analysis shows, this is happening for different reasons; following the move in developed countries towards a greater element of fees in the funding of universities, financial considerations have tended to dominate the situation, though there are powerful educational and research motives. In developing countries academic credibility and the need to survive and develop as members of an international community of scholars have been uppermost. But every situation is different in its social, economic and political context and policy and management mechanisms must be selected to suit the particular institutional circumstances. Whatever the reasons may be, it is vital that our institutional leaders and their lieutenants understand range of options that are available and the consequences of their choices. It is hoped that this study will contribute to that understanding.

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Contributors

Geoffrey Caston is a consultant in the management of higher education specializing in international activities. From 1983 to 1992 he was Vice Chancellor of the University of the South Pacific. Prior to that in a varied and wide ranging career he served as Secretary General of the UK Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals, Registrar of the University of Oxford and Under Secretary of the University Grants Committee.

Kenneth Back has been a Higher Education Consultant in Canberra since he retired from the position of Executive Director of the International Development Program of Australian Universities in 1990, Prior to that he was Vice Chancellor of the James Cook University of North Queensland from 1970 to 1985. He has travelled widely and undertaken many consultancy studies in the Pacific and Far East.

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Vijay Naidu is Pro Vice-Chancellor (Academic) and Reader in Sociology at the University of the South Pacific, where he has been since 1974. He was also Head of the School of Social and Economic Development at the university for two years. His research work has covered plural societies in the South Pacific and contributions to the debate about the development process in the post colonial era.

James Shute holds the position of Director of the Centre for International Programmes at the University of Guelph in Canada. Until 1991 he was a professor in the Department of Rural Extension Studies. He has worked extensively in West Africa, New Zealand, Australia and as external examiner elsewhere. There are many articles and reports to his name covering agricultural education, instructional technology and South-North university collaboration.
Introduction

All over the world, universities are experiencing, and often themselves generating, increasing pressures to internationalise their activities. This study is an empirical examination of the current experience in four countries (Australia, Canada, India and Malaysia) and two regions (East Africa, comprising Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, and the South Pacific, comprising twelve “micro-states”).

This opening chapter contains an overview and analysis of the material recorded in the six which follow. (All quotations in it are from the relevant following chapter.) The chapters have been contributed by university scholars or administrators in the countries concerned, and are based on formal or informal surveys of the national or regional scenes, written after wide consultation. Each also contains a more intensive description of the situation in one university, respectively the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT), the University of Guelph, Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU), the University of Malaya, Egerton University and the University of the South Pacific (USP). The countries selected for study are of course, vastly different in their size, their resources and the missions of their higher education systems. So are the universities, including a large urban institution in Australia, a relatively small agricultural university in Kenya, a postgraduate institution in India, and a unique regional university in the South Pacific with a strong distance education component.

Types of International Cooperation

Every country in this study offered examples of the following modes of international cooperation, which will be examined later

* study by students from other countries and by their own nationals in other countries

* study, teaching or research by academic staff in other countries, or by foreign nationals in their own universities

* research or development projects conducted in collaboration with universities in other countries
validation of academic or management standards by comparison with universities in other countries.

Sometimes these activities involve reciprocal university-to-university links, but only rarely do they involve the kind of balance which would be implied by designating them as "exchanges".

Missions and Motives

Though almost all universities nowadays include some reference to internationalisation in mission and policy statements, emphasis varies. For Canadian universities generally, the most important reasons for it were "preparing internationally knowledgeable graduates" and "addressing the interdependent nature of the world"; for Guelph, a 1972 formal commitment to the "international dimension" of its objectives became one of the five major themes of its 1995 strategic plan, and "a responsibility to foster a global perspective and knowledge of other cultures in our students" was asserted "above all". In Australia, the rhetoric is similar: the international role of the university is now "mainstream rather than peripheral", and is specifically mentioned in most institutional mission statements. RMIT aims "to internationalise the curriculum and educational experience of RMIT students through development of a culture which values the globalisation of education", and has a detailed international strategy for implementing this.

In developing countries, where activity has been less intense, similar objectives are professed, though there is less emphasis on the benefits for domestic students. In India, stress is laid on the professional needs of academics for international networking, though it is also accepted that "interaction with foreign faculty and the presence of foreign students has a desirable influence on Indian students": more formally, the Act establishing JNU requires it to take steps "with a view to inculcating in the students a world perspective and international understanding" and "to provide facilities for students and teachers from other countries to participate in the academic programmes and life of the University." In Malaysia, the emphasis is less explicit: mission statements typically refer to maintaining international links among others, such as those with local industry.

In the developing countries in particular, a prime object of international links is to secure and maintain international recognition for the university’s teaching and research. USP’s mission statement “requires it to . . . maintain academic standards that are acceptable internationally” since “the countries of the South Pacific would not be satisfied, and ought not to be satisfied, with university degrees which do not command proper esteem”. This desire to establish reputation and status in an international academic community, and its many intellectual sub-disciplines, is one of the principal motives for international activity, both for the institution and the individual academic. It is noted for
Malaysia, for example, that “the objectives of international collaborative efforts are focused, in the main, on institutional and staff development, and academic and economic benefits. Social and cultural gains are given relatively less attention.”

Government Policies

Economic and political considerations are very evident in the policies of Governments, which determine the policies of universities either directly or indirectly through resource allocation. The main impetus for international university activity from the 1950s in Australia and Canada derived from their role in Government programmes for aid to developing countries. This was complemented by the role of universities in those countries (including all those in our study), both as the direct recipients of development assistance, and as collaborators with “metropolitan” universities in the implementation of research and training programmes in many areas of development. As the emphasis in Government policies in the developed countries shifted from aid to trade, their universities also came to be seen as important producers of higher education as an export, and their marketing of places for foreign students became for some the principal international objective. The ways in which governments have structured the financing of this market have become highly significant, as we shall see, for example, in comparing the experiences of Australia and Canada.

Other countries are following the export example. In Malaysia, there are recent Government statements that “we want to internationalise [the education industry], make it an export industry . . . there are many educational institutions in the South of equal worth and capacity to those in the North....to be utilised as cheaper educational facilities for developing countries.” In India, too, it is being argued “that if the rich countries can make money through the admission of foreign students, why should a poor country like India not do the same?” The Governments of both India and Malaysia have also, like the major aid donors, provided scholarships for limited numbers of students from other developing countries to attend their universities. In the developing countries, however, the intake of foreign students into publicly-funded universities has in general been strictly controlled, because of extreme pressure upon places from their own citizens. In India, Malaysia and Kenya, private institutions, charging fees, have been much more vigorous in overseas recruitment, and this is only just beginning to change, with tentative steps towards emulating the developed countries in permitting public universities also to charge higher fees to overseas students.

The Flow of Students

Most countries attempt to monitor the number of incoming foreign students, at least to publicly-funded universities. In Australia they now amount to some
8% of the total student population (13% at RMIT), and increasing; in Canada about 3% and declining (at Guelph, from 10% fifteen years ago to 4% today); in the South Pacific about 2% (all at USP); Malaysia about 1% (2% at UM) and in India, where the figures are not reliable, about 0.5% (2% at JNU). There are no figures for East Africa, but there too it must be well under 1%.

Numbers of citizens studying overseas are harder to establish. In 1990 the estimate for Malaysians was 52,000, about the same number as those studying in Malaysian universities; since then there have been efforts to reduce the number by building up national capacity. India recorded about 6500 in 1992, and it is suggested that easing of foreign exchange controls since then may have increased that figure. Kenya has “about 10,000” students overseas.

However, such mass movement of students seeking their education in other countries because of perceived deficiencies of places or quality in their own universities cannot really be seen as “international cooperation”; it is more like competition, and indeed the University of the South Pacific complains about Australian universities unfairly attracting many of the best students from its countries, often with scholarships paid for with Government “aid” funds.

A quite different situation is that of students registered in a “home” university who take a part of their programme in an overseas university, for educational reasons: the “study abroad” period. Universities in Australia and Canada are actively seeking to promote this mode, though numbers are still relatively small (“less than 1,000” in Australia, but “expected to grow significantly”). RMIT is aiming at having 10% of its students “travel internationally as part of their course” by the year 2000, and Guelph already has 2% of its students studying overseas. Malaysia is keen to develop such programmes for its own students, and several universities run joint graduate programmes with others in the South East Asia region, with government encouragement. Generally, however, universities in developing countries do not yet offer many such opportunities to their students (except for a handful of exchange students from USP). Most do, however, have various arrangements for providing for “non-graduating students” from overseas; for example, about a third of UM’s foreign students are in this category. A number of bilateral links between universities involve provision for “split courses” of this kind, and the 30 or more universities who are members of the Commonwealth Universities Study Abroad Consortium (CUSAC) have committed themselves to development of them, though funding is an obstacle in many cases.

Academic Staff Abroad

“An important element in the internationalisation of Australian campuses is the freedom to appoint foreign nationals to academic posts. . . the different perspective they bring . . . enhances both the quality of the courses and the acceptability of Australian graduates for . . . study at overseas universities”. Canada, too, finds “the massive recruitment in the sixties and seventies of
both non-Canadian academics and Canadian faculty trained abroad” to have contributed to their enthusiasm for international activities, and Guelph estimates that nearly half of its faculty has “serious academic experience internationally”. Governments in developing countries, however, often take a different view about protecting employment opportunities for their own nationals, although in East Africa “many universities still retain a good number of expatriate staff”. Malaysia uses its small proportion of foreign staff mainly for language teaching, USP is quite exceptional in recruiting 35% of its academic and comparable staff from 21 different countries outside its region, and from 10 of its component South Pacific nations,

In all of the countries in our study, it is an important feature of many academic careers that short periods of sabbatical or study leave are spent in overseas universities on periods of advanced study or research: in developing countries, such study is often funded from aid sources. At Egerton, some 11% of the faculty are currently working at overseas universities in this way; at USP about 15%. Such leave is often combined with visiting professorships for which funds and accommodation are provided by the host university; JNU and UM, among others, operate such a scheme. For more junior staff, there are schemes, such as that in Malaysia, for longer leave overseas, studying for higher degrees. In both Australia and Canada, sabbatical leave overseas is a major contributor to international enthusiasm among the academic staff, and universities fund shorter professional visits for conferences and similar purposes. At RMIT, it is a target for 2000 that 25% of staff should “travel internationally on RMIT activities annually”.

Joint Research and Development Projects

A significant proportion of aid funding has, over the last forty years, been used to finance research and development projects to be conducted jointly by universities in developed and developing countries. A major part of the intention behind such funding has been to use the experience of the “developed” university to build up research capacity in the partner in the “developing” country. In 1995, there were over 2000 such projects operated by Canadian universities. By their very nature, such projects tend to be one-sided, and care has to be, and usually is, taken to ensure that joint management arrangements are established to minimise possible ill effects from this. Although such joint projects typically involve partners with historical or regional connections, this is by no means always so: Egerton, for example, runs successful projects with universities in China, Israel and Austria, and UM with Goteborg, Berlin and Rouen, all deriving from specific shared academic interests. There is also an increasing disposition to establish these enterprises on a regional basis; there are examples in East and Central Africa, and in South East Asia.
International Validation of Academic Standards

In East Africa and in the South Pacific there remains a policy of assuring academic standards by international comparability, using external examiners and advisers from overseas, though financial limitations are now tending to confine this to nearer neighbors. USP requires all its departments to appoint external advisers “who are recognised scholars of professorial rank in reputable universities . . . . to maintain internationally acceptable standards”. An interesting parallel from a developed country is the use in Australia of international benchmark comparisons in assessing institutional academic and management quality.

A special case, related to the need for validation, is that of institutions which seek validation of their awards from an overseas university, whose staff are involved in its curriculum and its teaching. A number of such schemes exist in Malaysia, where RMIT has also established an offshore campus of its own.

Links

In recent years, there has been an explosion of formal international inter-university links, often under the auspices of inter-governmental cultural agreements. Australia now has 1800 of these, from only 94 seven years ago; Canada has a similar number, and in Kenya just one university (Nairobi) can muster over 100. Links can provide a framework for all or some of the above international activities -- or none. Their scope is customarily set out in a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU). But, as Malaysian experience shows, “the signing of MOUs is but the first step... many may be signed but few take off”. Funding may be promised, but soon expire, or may never materialise; the enthusiasm of the originators may die out... but the link continues, empty. The number of links is no measure of international activity, unless, as RMIT propose, they are annually reviewed to ensure that they remain active, and are not agreed “without a plan, however brief, for activity’, and an assurance of funding for it.

Regional Arrangements

The University of the South Pacific is “by its very nature an international institution”, its ownership, staffing and students being shared by twelve widely scattered island countries. Its staff and its administration are habituated to thinking and planning internationally. They do, however, distinguish between nations in their own region and “non-regionals”, the relationship with the latter being much the same as that of any university in the developing world with other foreign universities and with aid donors. A similar, though less striking, example of regionalism can be seen in East Africa, where the universities of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, all sharing some historical connection with the defunct University of East Africa, are accustomed to
exchanging staff, pursuing common policies, and co-operating in the Inter-
University Council for East Africa. Elsewhere, too, universities, often
encouraged by governments, may feel a special responsibility towards
neighboring countries, for example, India’s relationships with Bhutan, Nepal,
Bangladesh and Sri Lanka, and Malaysia’s intention of becoming a regional
centre of educational excellence for South East Asia. Some international
cooperation, in other words, is less international than others, and some
foreigners less foreign.

Finance

There is a feeling in all the countries, except perhaps Australia, that shortages
of funds impose severe limits on the capacity to undertake international
activities for which there would otherwise be growing enthusiasm. Nowhere
does the Government provide funds in the general operating budget which are
specially earmarked for international activities, although some specific
programmes or projects are separately financed by the Government. Notable
among the latter are development assistance projects (including training and
scholarships for foreign students) funded by Australia, Canada and Malaysia.

In Malaysia, where 90% of the public universities’ expenditure comes from
government grants, international activities are funded from the relevant section
of the operating budget, such as “research”, “teaching”, etc., and are
therefore usually administered by departments and faculties. Income from
such activities is normally surrendered to central university funds for
reallocation. However, it is recognised that in the long term, especially with
the impending “corporatisation” of universities (beginning with UM, and
involving greater financial autonomy and less reliance on government grants)
international activities will become self-funding, and even a source of surplus
funds for domestic programmes.

In India, where university resources are much more constrained, the situation
is rather similar. There is some token funding from the University Grants
Committee, and the Indian Council for Cultural Relations (ICCR) pays a little
towards the cost of Foreign Students Advisers in 50 universities, but generally
international collaboration has to be funded from general income, and at the
expense of other, cheaper, activities. Here too universities are therefore
looking to international activities to become self-funding, and especially to
foreign students as a potential source of revenue.

In East Africa the financial position is even tighter, and there are several
financial constraints on travel funds, for example. Almost all international
activities are therefore at present financed by international aid agencies, and
are expected to pay for themselves; departments are permitted to retain for
their own use any surplus income they derive in this way.
The University of the South Pacific relies very heavily on international funding; its income is contributed by its twelve member nations according to a careful formula, and each takes great care to ensure that the University’s expenditure provides equitably distributed benefits, rather than being concentrated excessively on the main host country, Fiji, a matter which generates some friction. USP is also a major beneficiary from international aid funding from outside its region, and in particular from “Third Country” scholarship programmes which pay for its students to attend from their home countries. As far as international activities outside its region are concerned, however, it is in much the same position as other universities in developing countries, and has to fund these from a recurrent operating budget which is under increasing pressure, or from aid funds which are administered by the donors in ways which do not always reflect the University’s own priorities.

Public funds for universities in Canada do not provide expressly for international activities, and these have suffered from the general pressure to reduce expenditure. This is especially the case with North-North programmes, although even the funds channelled through development assistance projects have been cut in recent years, which has led Guelph to think that it was right not to rely, as some other universities do, on the overheads from these to fund its international administration.

Australia appears at present to be an exceptional case, in that there is no evidence that international activities in universities are currently being constrained for lack of resources. As in other countries, Government grants make no special provision for international collaboration, although Government policies generally favour it. Since 1990, however, universities have been required to charge at least the full economic fee to all foreign students, and have been free to use the proceeds at their own discretion; this has been accompanied by the boom in the number of such students which we have seen above, and has generated funds which can be used to promote other international activities, as well as to cross-subsidise other areas of work. This has had a dramatic effect: “the development of International Offices in universities and the pressure on them to meet enrolment targets, the need for universities to develop effective promotional strategies, the demands placed on institutions by the Code’ of Practice and by the fee-paying students themselves to deliver quality teaching and support services and the challenges of a competitive market place, all combined to focus the attention of each institution on its international policies.”

Fees

A key to expanded international activity, therefore, may be, as it has proved in Australia, policy on fees. It has two dimensions: the amount of fees that can be charged (and the amount the market will bear); and what use can be made of the proceeds. In Australia the system that has evolved is a highly
liberal one. The Government indicates a minimum fee, which varies for each course, and is designed to cover the full cost of a student place, including a capital component; universities may only charge less than this if they can satisfy the Government that the full cost is covered by the lower fee. They are free to charge more than this minimum, and most do so. They retain all the income and are free to spend it at their discretion. It is particularly important that the full cost to be covered is the average cost; since there is for many courses and in many universities room to take a certain number of extra students at the much lower marginal cost, this leaves scope for subsidising other activities, and offers substantial incentives to recruitment of overseas students.

The general practice is for a university to allocate part of the income to administrative overheads (including the operation of the International Office), part to capital, and the bulk to the academic department or faculty in which the student is enroled. RMIT has developed, and constantly reviews, a formula for this. About half goes to the teaching area, and the fee is fixed at a level which will ensure that this generates a surplus over the cost of teaching domestic students; this surplus is typically spent by the departments on additional staff, research, and international activities such as conferences. The other half, after deduction of a capital contribution, supports the International Office, including direct campus support (such as language training and remedial programmes) for overseas students, and the marketing operation overseas. Some 5% of the total fee goes into a central fund controlled by the Vice-Chancellor for major international initiatives. Overseas fees now amount to some 15% of the total income of the University, and they "heavily cross-subsidise other international and domestic activities". The incentives to maximise this income are therefore widely spread throughout the University, and it is aiming at a target of 20% of student load by 2000, generating an income which will approach 25% of the budget.

RMIT is also the first Australian university to go one stage further, and set up its own offshore campus in another country, Malaysia, in addition to offering joint programmes in cooperation with overseas universities, also in Malaysia.

The remarkable success of the fee-driven international programmes of Australian universities depends upon there being a supply of overseas students willing to come to Australia, and able to pay the fees. To some extent, but a diminishing one, this export product is subsidised by the Australian taxpayer under various aid and scholarship programmes; in 1994, however, only 15% were receiving such a subsidy, compared with 42% in 1990 and 94% in 1987. 80% of the overseas students are from the Asia-Pacific region, and over 60% from five countries -- Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia and Thailand -- who provide no less than 75% at RMIT. It might be thought that this is rather a fragile market, especially as these countries are building
up the capacity of their own national institutions, and in some cases, such as Malaysia, plan to take in more foreign students themselves. Australian universities are fully aware of this, and anxiously study future prospects, but remain convinced that the surge of educational demand in these countries is sufficient to absorb all the available capacity for many years to come.

The Canadian experience has been quite different. In the 1980s, most provincial governments (largely responsible for funding the universities) also followed the growing practice in developed countries by imposing differential fees for overseas students, wishing to end what was seen as an indiscriminate subsidy. However, they did not insist upon the new fees covering full costs, and did not allow the universities to retain more than a fraction of them for their own purposes. The result was to seriously weaken financial incentives for the recruitment of overseas students, and this, together with a reduction of aid for scholarships, resulted in the fall in numbers we have seen. In 1983, nearly three times as many international students were studying in Canada as in Australia, while eleven years later, there were only three quarters as many; in a period during which Australia had almost quadrupled its intake, Canada had just about managed to maintain it, and it was decreasing. Nor did Canadian universities have access to a fees surplus to finance expansion of their other international activities, which, on the contrary, were victims of the general reduction in university resources seen in most countries.

In the developing countries, there has also been a growing awareness of the potential for increasing income by charging. In India, where there has been a long tradition in some universities of taking students from abroad, it is “being argued that India should not subsidise the education of foreign students”, and their fees “are viewed as an important source for the development of campuses by resource-starved universities”. Though there appears to be no clear policy, it is now accepted that such higher fees can be charged and, if they are, that the universities can retain them. (This has produced a hiatus in government policy, since the funds available for scholarships have not been increased, and the number of foreign students supported in this way has therefore had to be reduced.) The size of the increased fees, which vary, greatly between institutions, is generally insufficient to cover full costs, and the income is used in different ways by different universities. Some see it as a means to develop the campus generally, while others have specifically invested it in meeting the needs of the foreign students themselves, for accommodation and other facilities, in the hope of attracting more and thus increasing future resources. JNU has just introduced such a fee, but the numbers involved are small and the proceeds have been merged in the general income of the university; students from developing countries are likely to continue to receive a subsidy, or even a waiver.
The Indian situation highlights a problem for developing countries. Most of the foreign students they are likely to attract are those from countries poorer than their own, who will be unlikely to be able to afford anything approaching a full economic fee. In East Africa, for example, it has recently been decided to charge international students double the (exceedingly small) domestic fee; this is still only a fraction of the cost, but the concern has been to keep the fee within “the affordable limits of sister countries”. At Egerton, this concern has been taken farther; while the postgraduate fee has been doubled, that for undergraduates, almost all from Africa, has been increased by only 20%. Nevertheless, East African universities are beginning to look to fee income as a possible source of funding for an expansion of their international activities.

Malaysia, operating in a rather richer regional international environment, is looking farther ahead. Programmes, particularly at post graduate level, are planned which will attract foreign students, particularly from the region, for a full economic fee; Malaysian universities will thus be competing in the same market as Australian universities, with the Government hoping, as we have seen, to be able to undersell their competitors (or rival exporters of higher education).

In some circumstances, aid programmes can be used to assist the development of universities in developing countries as regional centres, by paying, as part of “Third Country Awards” economic fees, which are likely to be lower than those charged by the donors’ own universities. (This may lead, as it has done in Australia, to some conflict in the donor country between the interest of the aid administration in getting more value for the aid dollar and in building up the recipients’ local institutions and the interest of the education industry in selling more of its products overseas.) A good, but rather special, example is the system in the South Pacific by which aid donors have paid USP a full average cost “economic” fee (also charged by the University to students from outside the region) for regional students from countries outside Fiji to attend the main campus of the University in that country. There are parallels in regional programmes organised in East Africa and South East Asia.

Another way forward for developing countries is to market, for a full cost fee, opportunities for students from developed countries to spend a part of their course in the “developing” university, which has a different, but valuable, educational experience to offer. So far there has been rather little activity of this kind, but there are signs of its growing; our study shows increasing enthusiasm for such study abroad among students in Australia and Canada. The promotion of such programmes within the Commonwealth is one of the main objectives of CUSAC.
Internal Management of International Activities

Up to a point, the international activities of universities are no more than extra dimensions of its normal activities, and require only perhaps a certain special sensitivity on the part of those who manage those activities: student admissions, student welfare, staff training, conditions of service and leave, academic programmes and teaching, finance. That is indeed the basis on which most of the universities in our study organise the management of international cooperation.

At Egerton, as in other East African universities, there is no separate international office, staff and student matters being dealt with through “the normal university machinery” in the academic departments and the Registry with the Deputy Vice Chancellor providing formal approval on the University’s behalf when a University commitment is required, or where governments become involved. Only major collaborative projects, often involving aid agencies as well as other universities, warrant special treatment in the form of ad hoc management committees, on which the University will have senior representation, and which may be “fairly autonomous” bodies with “wide powers over policy and implementation”.

The situation is similar in India, where the lack of international offices in the universities lead s to complaints about “bureaucratic” obstacles in processing student applications. Difficulties arise because international transactions concerning students and staff often require action on a much speedier time scale than domestic ones, and a variety of special considerations, including immigration requirements and special accommodation needs, intervene, calling for greater attention and even advocacy, JNU is contemplating creating a post of Assistant Registrar (International Cooperation) but few universities have yet taken such a step. In Malaysia, too, special international management units are rare, though the University of Science has established one with a direct reporting line to the Vice Chancellor. At UM, an International Relations Unit has been proposed, but at present the function rests with heads of departments and the Registrar’s staff. However, the Malaysia study recommends that the establishment of such a unit “toe o-ordinate international collaborative efforts between the various departments or faculties of a university will help to shape policies and strategies, and maximise the use of resources in developing overseas links. There is the need to get the act together”.

The USP study also recommends that such a unit be set up, with the more limited function of catering “for the needs of students from beyond the region, as well as negotiate and facilitate student and staff exchanges”. Other international matters, including aid negotiations, relations with international agencies, and the negotiation of agreements with other institutions, are already co-ordinated by the Planning and Development Office, working directly to the Vice-Chancellor; the policy here is to encourage individual academic
departments to take more initiatives of this kind, within guidelines set by, and subject to the approval of, the central administration.

Canadian universities provide many examples of International Offices with such co-ordinating functions; two-thirds of them have such units. Guelph offers a prototype of one with a relatively decentralised approach, which “places the responsibility for initiating, managing and reporting on international activities in academic departments. The Centre [for International Programmes] supports, encourages and assists these efforts, but does not manage them”, and has existed since 1967. It has a staff of only four (the Director, Information Clerk and Secretary, plus a recently appointed Study Abroad and Exchange Manager) supported by a team of student “peer helpers”. Its Director considers that, to be effective, such an office must have a university-wide role and access to the senior academic administration and committee structure; an “information/communication switchboard” role, forming the international database for the institution; and central funding from university operating funds, rather than from fees or overheads, as concrete demonstration of the university’s commitment to internationalisation.

In Australia, not surprisingly in view of the position of internationalism as a “mainstream” element of the universities’ mission (and of their financial stability), we find a somewhat different emphasis, with much more extensive central offices setting increasingly ambitious targets and measuring progress towards them. Arising in most cases from the need to recruit overseas students and then to provide services for them, all universities now have international offices. The current trend is towards greater centralisation, and to bring together all international activities in such an office, typically reporting directly to a Pro-Vice Chancellor, and headed by an officer of at least the status of a faculty Dean. It emphasises the importance of close linkages between the administrative, student welfare, academic and commercial aspects of international education, and offers incentives to academic staff who participate.

RMIT has an “International Division” headed by the Deputy Vice Chancellor (International), organised in three groups. The first is the “University Office of International Programmes”, headed by the Dean, which has some 20 staff: its responsibilities include international strategies; policies and procedures, administration of the RMIT campus in Malaysia; international student quotas and fees; study abroad for staff and students; support for overseas students in Melbourne, including financial assistance and the organisation of language and pre-university programmes; offshore project negotiation and management. The second group has a staff of over 30, and is responsible for marketing the University overseas, for student recruitment and fee collection; it operates as company wholly owned by RMIT, and works closely with academic departments and with supporting Government agencies, including Australian
Education Centres overseas. The third “group” is the RMIT campus in Malaysia.

Faculties and teaching departments also have considerable discretion to undertake international activities within the strategy laid down by the University. They develop their own links and organise their own programmes, and are “expected to have international targets built into annual performance plans”, for which their Dean is responsible to the Deputy Vice Chancellor (International). There is a network of International Student Advisers employed in each faculty and centrally. The active involvement of academic faculties is considered to be “an important ingredient of RMIT’s success”.

The “international strategy” is laid down by a special “Major International Projects Committee” of the University Council, and has set specific performance targets for each activity for the year 2000 (e.g. 20% of student load; 5000 students on the Malaysia campus; 25% of staff to travel internationally each year; all undergraduate degrees to contain “Language other than English” options). Progress towards these and other quantitative targets is carefully monitored; so is the quality, with regular surveys of the perceptions of international students, analyses of their performance in comparison with Australian students, and a bi-annual survey of staff involved in international programmes.

Management Principles

While the scale of international activity varies widely from country to country and institution to institution, and with it the scale of the organisation to deal with it, there is little difference of view about the management principles involved. All agree that active initiatives by departments and faculties are essential, as well as a unit at the centre. Those universities whose activities are on a small scale and have not yet been able to justify the creation of an international unit all feel that one is needed, while at the other end of the scale, at RMIT, there is strong emphasis on the importance of vigorous participation at faculty level, including the acceptance of part of the responsibility for the special care needed by international students.

Guelph, which describes its own approach as “decentralised”, and its Centre as supporting, encouraging and assisting the efforts of departments, nevertheless urges the importance of commitment from the highest levels of the administration to the mandate, “if more than lip-service is to be paid to the mission statement’s international perspective”, and suggests that the motives of the senior administrators should preferably be “personal as well as institutional”. This importance of commitment at the highest levels of the University administration is stressed in all our studies as an essential motivator and priority setter for staff at all levels. In the absence of powerful financial incentives such as the Australian system provides, personal enthusiasm on the
part of academics and administrators for international activities as educationally and intellectually desirable seems to be one of the main ingredients of success, and the task of management therefore is to find ways of inspiring it, through the university’s structure of rewards and approval.

Malaysia and India, in particular, urge the importance of training programmes for both academics and administrators involved in international activities, many of which may be quite unfamiliar and call for different skills, attitudes and information than those to which they are accustomed in domestic administration and teaching. As the Indian chapter asserts, “human factors/relations are crucial at all levels and in all activities”.

Issues for the Future

Several general concerns emerge in different forms from the experience of all these countries, rich and poor alike. The first is an anxiety lest commercial, income-generating motives drive out others and distort the institution’s educational and research missions. This is expressed strongly in the Malaysian paper, which regrets that “social and cultural gains from collaborative efforts are given relatively less attention”. In Australia, Government policy is said recently to have “reduced the emphasis on export earnings and recognised the wider benefits of international activities, and RMIT specifically acknowledges the need for academic policies to balance commercial interests. On the other hand, the main impediment is seen everywhere to be shortage of funds, and with public funds (including those from aid donors) drying up, even universities in the developing countries see some hope in generating income from fees for overseas students, recognizing that they too have an educational experience of value to sell.

A related anxiety is the lack of balance in collaboration between rich and poor countries. In relation to “North-South networks”, the Canadian paper writes of the “difficulty of ensuring academic quality and the risk of paternalism”; the Indian paper writes candidly of “one-sided links” and of poor quality teaching and facilities by international standards; USP is worried about who is driving projects funded by international agencies, and whether they are truly in the interest of the South Pacific. These anxieties are leading to moves in the other direction, with developed universities encouraging their students to study abroad in the developing world, but the disparities make it hard to attract them or to provide for them, and progress in reversing the South to North flow is extremely slow.

Meanwhile, the technological gap is, if anything, widening. The pervasive use in higher education of rapidly changing information technology, with which developing countries can hardly keep up, sets up very strong academic pressures to “trade up” internationally; everyone wants to tap into the experience of the richer universities, and in many fields it is almost impossible
for the poorer ones to offer attractive exchanges. The speedier modem tools of international communication are also the preserve of the richer universities, and the disparity may lead to the breakdown of many negotiations.

Nevertheless, it appears to be the case that everywhere there is a growing perception of the importance of an international dimension to education and research, not just as an abstract good, but for the enhancement of the quality of the university’s products, and therefore in the national interest in a competitive world. There are formidable management challenges in how best to contrive financial policies (including fees) to encourage this dimension; how best to overcome those cultural difficulties which may accompany international contacts of both staff and students; and how best to stimulate enthusiasm for this dimension among all those who take decisions, governments, academic and administrative staff, and, not least, students. The chapters which follow offer a wide range of examples of different responses to these and similar challenges.
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AUSTRALIA

Ken Back and Dorothy Davis with the institution case study contributed by Tony Adams

Government Policy and the Internationalisation of Education

Australia’s prime international focus is the Asia/Pacific region, and this is reflected in its foreign policy, in its trade, in its development assistance objectives, in its recognition of multiculturalism and in its international education programmes. Today all universities recognise the importance of the internationalisation process and there is clear understanding of the many academic, professional, social, cultural and foreign relations advantages, as well as economic benefits, which internationalisation can bring.

Australia was a key player when the Colombo Plan for Co-operative Development in South and South-East Asia was launched in July 1951. The Plan marked the first formal entry of the Australian Government into the direct sponsorship of overseas students for study in Australian institutions. Subsequently, the official sponsorship of overseas students was made through arrangements under the Australian aid program, now the responsibility of the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID). More than 20% of the AusAID budget is directed to education and training and in 1995 there was a total of 6,107 sponsored students, 10% of the total international student population in Australia. The largest sending countries are Indonesia (16%) followed by Thailand (10%) and Malaysia (9%).

Until 1985 the flow of private (unsponsored) overseas to Australia was limited by quotas, but as they were not required to pay the full cost of their education they were in effect subsidised by the Australian Government. A new policy was introduced in 1985 which removed quota restrictions provided private overseas students paid the full cost of a student place. After 1990 no new subsidised students were admitted so that the full fee for tuition would be paid by all overseas students or by their sponsors; future Federal Government funding for universities would be based solely on the number of domestic students. For those institutions which had traditionally enrolled large numbers of private (subsidised) overseas students, the effect of this policy was potentially damaging as they would have to enrol a similar number of fee paying students to maintain their income levels. To maintain the aid component, the government policy provided for new scholarships schemes including the Australian Development Cooperation Scholarships (ADCOS) and the Overseas Postgraduate Research Scholarships (OPRS).

Attitudes on international issues were forced into prominence when the fee paying student policy came into full effect, especially with the financial impact
of the phasing out of the subsidised programme. The development of International Offices in universities and the pressure on them to meet enrolment targets, the need for universities to develop effective promotional strategies, the demands placed on institutions by the Code of Practice and by the fee paying students themselves to deliver quality teaching and support services and the challenges of a competitive market place, all combined to focus the attention of each institution on its international policies. In 1992 the Australian Government amounted a new policy on Internationalisation of Education which reduced the emphasis on export earnings and recognised the wider benefits of international activities. The intention of the policy was to shift the focus from trade to internationalisation and to set the scene for a more balanced response to international initiatives and opportunities. (Beazley, 1992)

It is probably true to say that the shift from aid to trade to internationalisation in the higher education sector in Australia is really a matter of degree rather than a fundamental change of attitude. Now that the Australian Government has moved away from a narrow commercial approach and has formally enunciated a policy on the Internationalisation of Education, the environment is conducive for universities to reassess their international policies. The international role of a university is now mainstream, rather than peripheral, and this is evidenced by specific mention in most institutions’ mission statements, by the involvement of top management in international policy formulation and its implementation and by the centralizing of activities, including the establishment of International Offices.

At the Federal Government level, responsibility for international education is with the International Division of the Department for Employment, Education and Training (DEET) the objective of which is to promote international cooperation in employment, education and training, foster economic growth and enhance the quality of Australian employment and training by:

* participating in the activities of international organisations delivering consultancy services overseas
* facilitating access of international students to Australian education services
* expanding and improving language learning and literacy in Australia
* facilitating the integration of people with overseas skills and qualifications into the labour market.

Components of DEET programmes which are relevant to the internationalisation of higher education include:

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* **International Cooperation**, through Australia’s membership of **OECD**, participation in **UNESCO** programmes and in the **APEC** forum, including the University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific program (UMAP), an initiative of the Australian Vice-Chancellors Committee (AVCC) and DEET. In 1994 A$1.04 million was provided to support 26 Australian universities for 32 trial projects with Indonesia, Thailand, Japan, Korea, Singapore and the People’s Republic of China and to support the AVCC’s continued work on regional UMAP arrangements.

* The **Asia Fellowships Program** through which 16 fellowships were awarded in 1993-1994 for a variety of projects to develop opportunities for Australian professionals in Indonesia, Malaysia, Vietnam, India and Taiwan.

* **Bilateral linkages** especially in the Asia-Pacific region.

* **International Students**: In addition to the Overseas Postgraduate Research Scholarships (OPRS), DEET provided close to 100 awards in 1993-1994 for overseas students nominated by their governments to enhance Australian academic research and its international standing.

* The **Australian International Education Foundation** (AIEF) was established in November, 1994 to strengthen the government/industry partnership and to promote and market Australian education and training services overseas. The activities of the AIEF are guided by a Council which advises the Minister and include the provision of generic information on Australian education through the Australian Education Centres, the development of marketing strategies to enhance the perception of Australia as a provider of high quality education, and the establishment of government to government links.

The Scope of Internationalisation in Higher Education

While there are a wide range of activities which are recognised as being relevant to the *international theme, international students* are a central feature. With the introduction of the new government policies on overseas students fees, the number of international students increased dramatically, especially from the mid-1980’s. In 1982, there were 12033; in 1987, 17248 of whom 1019 (6%) paid fees; in 1991, 34408 of whom 23532 (68%) paid fees; in 1994, 46441, of whom 39774 (86%) paid fees.

Overseas students now represent around 8% of total higher education enrollments. In some of the larger universities, the percentage of overseas students is 15%. The diminishing difference between the total and the
fee-paying students (which include sponsored students) is due to those subsidised students who are still enrolled under the earlier overseas student policy. Eighty percent of the total overseas students come from Asia and the Pacific, five countries - Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia and Thailand - being the source of over 60%. Business studies and economics account for 50% of overseas students, with 15% in science and 11% in arts, languages and social sciences. Seventy five percent of overseas students in higher education are undertaking undergraduate studies.

Many international activities arise from international links, which may be bilateral arrangements between individual universities, or formal government to government arrangements both of which may promote student exchanges, academic staff exchanges and joint research activities. An AVCC survey in 1995 revealed that all Australian universities had link arrangements with overseas universities. There were almost 1800 links established, or being negotiated (although not all of them were active), compared with just 94 in 1987. (AVCC, 1995) In 1994 Australia had some 20 educational and cultural agreements with countries in Asia. A recent study on international links in higher education research provided detailed information on links between Australian university researchers and researchers overseas. The report suggested that a data base of international research links should be established (which could be regularly monitored to assist policy formulation. (NBEET, 1995)

The practice of a year’s study abroad as part of the undergraduate programme of a university is well established in United States institutions but is a recent development in Australia. Many Australian universities now include, in their international strategies, study abroad arrangements for their students. Currently, however, it is estimated that there are less than 1,000 Australian students studying abroad as a formal part of their undergraduate degree. This figure is expected to grow significantly as more universities adopt study abroad policies.

Academic staff exchange is an important international activity. Before the 1950’s most Australian academic staff went abroad for their research and higher degree training. It was also necessary for them to undertake regular periods of study and research overseas to keep abreast of developments and “study leave” or “sabbatical leave” became a feature of academic life, and is still an important component today. Also many Australian academics take advantage of the opportunities presented by Australia’s education and training aid programmes which are directed to the development of higher education institutions, especially in the Southeast Asia/Pacific region. An important element in the internationalisation of Australian campuses is the freedom to appoint foreign nationals to academic posts. The different perspective they bring, reflected in the courses they prepare and teach, enhances both the
quality of the courses and the acceptability of Australian graduates for
gradient study at overseas universities.

Australian universities have, in addition to traditional studies in European
languages, given special emphasis in recent times to Asian Studies. Today, 31 out of the 38 Universities in Australia offer studies in Asian Languages with most of them offering Asian Literature and Asian Studies as well, and 26 offer Multicultural Studies. Growth in the number of Asian Studies Centres in Australia has been prolific. A decade ago in 1985, there were about ten such centres. Today, there are 50. (Grant, 1994)

*Offshore initiatives* are a feature of the internationalisation of education by Australian universities. Many have adopted innovative approaches to the provision of education opportunities for prospective overseas students. Because of the great distances between urban centres in Australia, the offering of degree courses by correspondence has long been an important feature. The *distance education* mode is now a feature of many institutions, both individually and in consortia. This specialist knowledge of the methods of distance education is now being applied as part of the provision of courses to students offshore. An increasingly popular option has been to develop off-shore campuses in association with, or incorporated into, a local, often private, institution. Under this arrangement local students can study a preparatory year, or the first year, or sometimes the first two years of a course, or even, as in the case of RMIT’s Penang campus, the whole course, in their home country, with the participation of Australian teaching staff, and then proceed to the Australian campus to finish the program and qualify for the degree or diploma. Local laws and regulations normally require the foreign university to establish a formal partnership with a local institution.

The application of *open learning and information technology* in the teaching and learning process brings a new dimension to the internationalisation of higher education. Australia has been quick to exploit the opportunities presented by the increasing ease by which information can be distributed and exchanged and a leading example is the success of Open Learning Australia (OLA). This is a consortium of nine universities (plus 15 “providing” universities and colleges) which has developed a wide range of courses which can be taken off-campus by students who live virtually anywhere in Australia. The potential to bridge national boundaries is almost limitless. Furthermore, the development of Internet, World Wide Web and other international networks will continue to increase the opportunities, by electronic means, for academic interaction world wide.

One of the most important components of an international reputation for Australian education is the attitudes and activities of people who have returned to their home countries after completing their studies in Australia. Australian
universities have fostered the establishment of more than 50 Alumni Associations in Asia.

The Management of International Collaboration

Before the current overseas student policy was introduced in 1985, there was little formal policy on overseas students and few support arrangements for them in Australian universities. The concept of full fees for overseas students introduced new obligations for receiving institutions and in 1988 the AVCC formulated a *Code of Ethical Practice in the Provision of Full-fee Courses to Overseas Students by Australian Higher Education Institutions* (Revised in 1994). The Code and the accompanying Guidelines stressed the need for appropriate infrastructure including “an international unit” to provide all necessary services for overseas students. Universities responded to these requirements and all have now established “International Offices” or their equivalent. (AVCC, 1994)

Some universities follow the principle of all international student activities being centralised in one office. In others, some of the functions, such as admissions and support services, are the responsibility of the university’s general administration. Commercial contracts for the provision of education services offshore are often handled by a separate office such as the commercial arm of the university. Many universities are currently reviewing the structure of their international offices in the light of the growing awareness of the importance of internationalisation. The current trend is to a more centralised, higher profile office structure, bringing together all international activities and reporting directly to the senior management, often a Pro Vice-Chancellor. Another important function of the International Office of universities is to give policy advice to the university in the pursuit of its international objectives including promotion and marketing of its courses offshore, creating links with other institutions, assistance in developing an international focus in its academic programmes and, increasingly, the facilitation of study abroad options for Australian students.

The International Offices typically offer a wide range of services to overseas students including course information and admission requirements; processing of applications for enrolment; advice to students on medical insurance, immigration requirements and health; welfare and counseling services; scholarship opportunities; and institutional and cultural orientation programmes. Many universities offer pre-university training or bridging courses (Foundation Year) designed to assist students who are not qualified for direct university entry or require further preparation. All universities have some form of intensive English training courses for overseas students, or have an arrangement with a neighbouring institution which offers such courses.
The International Offices in some universities, often in association with teaching and learning support services, provide cross-cultural training programmes for academic and administrative staff. In other universities, staff familiarisation with teaching methods appropriate for international students, is the responsibility of the faculty. A measure of the commitment of Australian universities to international issues is that specific mention is made of them by virtually all universities in their mission statements.

While all Australian universities have embraced the concept of internationalisation, several stand out as being the most active. In terms of the enrolment of overseas students, the leaders are Monash University and the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT) in Victoria, the University of New South Wales, and Curtin University of Technology in Western Australia. A Case Study of RMIT is included in this chapter.

Management Issues

The Australian higher education system underwent a major reorganisation in 1989, with the abandonment of the “binary system” and its replacement with the “Unified National System” so that the 19 universities and 47 colleges of advanced education became the current 36 universities in the Unified National System (plus two private universities). This change was accompanied by a greater emphasis by Government on the efficiency and effectiveness of universities and various procedures were introduced to measure performance including quality assurance. In 1992, the Federal Government established the Committee of Quality Assurance in Higher Education as a non-statutory Ministerial advisory committee to assist the Government in the implementation of its strategy for ensuring the quality, excellence and international standing of Australia’s higher education system.

It is relevant to note that, for several years, it has been fashionable in manufacturing and service industries for companies to compare their performance with their peers, a process that is now widely known as benchmarking. A number of Australian universities have adapted this approach to an international comparison between their own institutions and overseas institutions, at institutional, faculty and departmental levels. The benchmarking requires evidence of equivalence of standards on a range of criteria or the strategies required to match standards. The Committee for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (1995): “anticipates further activity and effort by institutions . . . . . in the further development and sophisticated use of national and international benchmarking . . . . as the internationalisation of Australia’s higher education system proceeds”.

The quality of institutional performance in international activities is being increasingly focused on, not only through government initiatives but also, since the introduction of full fees, for overseas students who are naturally
much more demanding for "value for money" than they were previously when
tuition was free or subsidised. There is also more attention to quality
assurance of off-shore programmes and campuses. These are now important
management issues for the International Offices of universities.

Another related issue is the integration of international activities within the
institution. As pointed out above, most universities are in the process of
reviewing, or have recently undertaken reviews of, their International Offices.
Various structures are being developed (see the RMIT Case Study for one
example) but all recognise the importance of close linkages between the
administrative, student welfare, academic and commercial aspects of
international education. There is a growing awareness, too, of the need to
recognise, by way of appropriate incentives, the international activities of
academic staff, be they participants in offshore activities and promotions for
their university, or consultants in overseas aid programmes, or officers
responsible for on-campus international work.

Two key issues arising directly from the full fee policy for overseas students
are how are the fee levels set? and how is the fee income disbursed? From
the outset, when the policy was introduced in 1985, government policy has
been emphatic that the fees charged must represent the full cost of a student
place, including a capital component, and that no domestic student would be
displaced by the enrolment of fee-paying overseas students. The Federal
Government’s approach to the level of fees has varied from time to time in the
light of experience, and the current arrangement is that indicative minimum
fees are set by DEET each year. Institutions may charge less than the
indicative minimum fee provided it meets the full average cost of the course
and they have the written permission of the Higher Education Division of
DEET. They are free to charge above the minimum and most do so.
Institutions retain the income and are free to spend it at their discretion.
Practices vary, but the general pattern is for some of the income to be
allocated to administration (including the operation of the International
Office), some to capital, and the major proportion to the academic Faculty,
Department or School in which overseas students are enrolled.

An important issue in the internationalisation of higher education is the extent
to which a university is prepared to modify its curriculum in the light of its
international experience. A study undertaken early in 1995 by IDP Education
Australia for DEET (DEET, 1995 (b)) analysed the extent to which higher
education curricula in Australia have become internationalised and it was
shown that Australian universities are responding through the introduction of

* additional international content into courses

* comparative and cross-cultural approaches
language and area studies
interdisciplinary programmes covering more than one country
joint degree courses involving a professional course linked to an international studies/language course
courses taught, in part, overseas or involving a study abroad component
a placement in an overseas organisation or an international study tour
courses using visiting academics from overseas.

There is a growing awareness, nationally and internationally, that internationalisation of the curriculum is a key feature of the internationalisation process, providing benefits not only to the international student, but to the host campus as a whole. Among the management issues related to international curriculum development are: incentives for staff, access and equity for students, transferability of qualifications, quality assurance of off-shore course components, and funding for curriculum initiatives.

Whereas in the past there was a clear distinction between sending and receiving countries in the flow of international students, the international curriculum study (paragraph 4.6) showed that there is a growing awareness in Australian universities of the need to achieve a partnership balance. While the numbers of Australian students who spend part of their study in traditional sending country universities, a pattern is emerging which indicates that the balance will gradually change with more Australian students going overseas.

Looking to the future, there is little doubt that one of the most important factors in the internationalisation of higher education will be the impact of new information technology. It is safe to assume that there will continue to be, world-wide, an outward looking attitude to the concept of internationalisation by higher education institutions in the new technological era. It remains to be seen, of course, what impact the new technologies will have on the process of internationalisation over the next decade. The concepts of the information super-highway, the virtual campus and the borderless world have implications for student mobility, for the modes of teaching and learning, for the structure and content of courses and for accessibility coeducation. In this context a number of questions must be addressed by the Australian higher education sector, if it is to build on its growing strength in the application of information technology in the process of internationalisation:
* Will technology bring about significant and lasting changes in international education and will the impact be positive or negative?

* Will existing pedagogy be significantly altered by systems requiring less physical and more electronic contact between student and teacher?

* Will there be a move towards a general acceptance of degree studies being a mix of courses from international universities?

* Will higher education become available only to those with the necessary hardware and software so that the gap will widen between developed and developing countries?

* Will academic freedom be threatened by control of the future education information networks by large media monopolies?
CASE STUDY OF AN AUSTRALIAN UNIVERSITY: THE ROYAL MELBOURNE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY (RMIT)

The Institution

RMIT was established in 1887 as the Working Men’s College; it is now the largest multi-level university in Australia. It consists of a Technical and Further Education (TAFE) Sector providing vocational and para-professional training though apprenticeships, certificates and associate diplomas and a Higher Education Sector which provides undergraduate and post graduate education and research programmes to PhD level. In 1996, the TAFE and Higher Education Sectors will be merged into nine Faculties of; Applied Science, Art and Design, Biomedical and Health Sciences, Business, Education and Training, Engineering, Environmental Design and Construction, Nursing and Social Science and Communications. It has three major campuses located in the central business district of Melbourne, and eight and 25 kilometres north of the city respectively. It has, in 1995, 24,873 higher education students, of whom some 20,000 are undergraduates, 4,000 are international in Australia and 2,000 international “offshore”. There are 1,492 academic and teaching staff.

Australian Government funded research centres have been developed in the disciplines of: applied and nutritional toxicology, information technology, aerospace structures, intelligent decision systems, intelligent manufacturing systems, polymers, and housing and urban research.

University Policies on Internationalisation

RMIT has a well developed annual strategic planning process that provides a plan for the coming year and strategic plans for a three year period in the areas of teaching and learning, research, and internationalisation. The RMIT mission contains within it the top level of the international strategy. The detailed international strategy is published as a separate document. Through its mission as a University with a professional and vocational orientation, RMIT has set itself the following goal for internationalisation. To internationalise the curriculum and educational experience of RMIT students through development of a culture which values the globalisation of education with all its implications and effective action in the following areas of activity: international student program, education abroad, off shore programmes and projects, and internationalisation of the curriculum.

RMIT has defined its international strategy in terms of the professional and vocational context, rather than the arts/politics context of many traditional Australian and overseas universities. Its international development effectively commenced in 1987 with the Australian Government’s decision to require that
international students pay the full costs of education in Australia. At that time, RMIT had less than 200 international students, had few international agreements and exchanges, and had only begun to develop a culture in which students and staff were expected to be involved internationally.

Since 1987, RMIT has moved through two periods of internationalisation and into a third. The first period, from 1987 to 1990, was characterised by RMIT positioning itself as a leader in the development of recruitment of onshore students, of the creation of offshore degree programmes in Singapore and Malaysia and of the beginnings of a culture of international exchange. In this period it was RMIT’s academic Faculties and Departments and its commercial arm Technisearch that provided leadership in the absence of a well defined international strategy.

The second period, 1991-1995, saw corporate strategy developing with the creation of the University Office of International Programmes to provide overall strategic direction and policy overview, and the creation of internal processes to handle the increasingly complex demands of internationalisation, including specialist committees to oversee the International Student Program, international student scholarships and offshore project approvals. This period built on earlier work and saw the mainstreaming of international student recruitment through RMIT’s commercial subsidiary Technisearch, and the consolidation of offshore programmes by the Faculty of Business. During this period, the number of international students at RMIT grew to 4000 in onshore award courses, 1000 in English language courses and 2000 in degree and diploma programmes offshore. From a small base of less than 200 international students in 1987, RMIT had grown to be the second largest destination for international students in Australia, and arguably (as no figures are available nationally) Australia’s largest provider of offshore education. This period also saw the rapid development of international linkages through the expansion of the education abroad program that in 1995 sent out 150 RMIT students on bilateral exchange to destinations in North America, Asia and Western Europe.

The third period, commencing in 1996, will see a major restructure of the University with the creation of an International Division as one of the four operating Divisions of the University (Education and Training, Research and Development, Resources and International) under the executive leadership of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (International). 1996 will also see the opening of the RMIT Campus in Penang (Malaysia), the first offshore campus operation of an Australian University (as against twinning and specialist programmes operated offshore). The Penang campus will operate as a “College” of RMIT with strong training and research links to local industry. Other developments in 1996 will include the consolidation of international student support by the creation of the Centre For International Students and Scholars (CISS) within the UOIP, and the creation of “country desk” functions.
for Indonesia, China and Vietnam to co-ordinate all RMIT activities in those countries.

Priorities Between Different Types of Activities

RMIT’s international strategy is reflected in the specific targets set in its international strategy. These include:

* A target of 20% of student load of international students by the year 2000,
* 10% of RMIT students to travel internationally as part of their course by the year 2000,
* 25% of staff to travel internationally on RMIT activities annually,
* 3000 offshore students in twinning programmes by the year 2000,
* 5000 students on the Penang Campus by the year 2000,
* All undergraduate degrees to contain Language Other Than English options,
* Country desk responsibilities to be established for Indonesia, China, and Vietnam, linked to major strategy developments in those countries,
* RMIT’s Teaching and Learning Strategy to include major sections on: internationalisation of the curriculum, academic support for international students and internationalisation of the curriculum for offshore students,
* RMIT to be active in the development of research links that enhance the social and economic development of the host country and broaden Australia’s economic relationships
* A broadening of opportunities for offshore programmes by developing activities employing distance learning techniques.

Institutional Organisation For Internationalisation

The International Division consists of three central groups reporting to the Deputy Vice Chancellor (International). These are:
(a) **University Office of International Programmes (UOIP)**

The Head is the Dean of International Programmes. The UOIP consists of some 20 staff within the following structure:

**Office of the Dean** with responsibilities for: International strategies, policies and procedures, international student program quotas and fees, internationalisation of curriculum policy, and local (Melbourne) administration of RMIT Campus Penang in consultation with the Academic Director of the Penang Campus. (Four full time staff equivalent).

**Education Abroad Centre** with responsibility for: RMIT Student and Staff Abroad Programmes, offshore conferring co-ordination in Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong, senior staff travel and visiting delegation co-ordination and cross cultural support. A student and staff resource centre is operated on the Melbourne campus. (Four full time staff equivalent).

**Centre For International Students and Scholars** with responsibility for: international student support policy and advisers, international student scholarships and financial assistance schemes. International Student drop-in centres are operated on each of the three campuses. (Six full time staff equivalent plus a network of faculty based advisers).

**Offshore Projects Group** with responsibility for: offshore programmes policy and approval procedures, negotiations with offshore partners and potential partners. (Four full time staff equivalent).

**Pre-University Programmes** with responsibility for: the administration of the pre-university international student programmes. The program is delivered by teaching areas of the university. (One and a half full time staff equivalent plus teaching and administration staff in Faculties).

With the exception of a small budget for Education Abroad, the Office is funded from international student (onshore and offshore) fees.

(b) **RMIT International Ltd (formerly Technisearch Ltd)**

* RMIT International is a company wholly owned by RMIT, headed by a General Manager. The General Manager is also the Deputy Vice Chancellor (International), a mechanism that ensures accountability for the activities. The company is responsible for marketing and recruiting of international
students, fee collection, fee distribution, marketing strategy, visa and other statutory functions. It has a staff in excess of 30. RMIT International markets by participation in education fairs throughout the region, through the organisation of seminars and interviews and by links with a range of in-country agencies including IDP Education Australia. RMIT and other Australian providers are supported by Australian Education Centres throughout the region. RMIT Faculties work closely with RMIT International to provide discipline specific recruiting expertise. This is particularly important in the case of niche activities such as in Art and Design, Marketing plans are developed for each major market on an annual basis and integrated with RMIT’s country strategies and targets.

* The International Student Program is required to operate at the full cost of the students education. It accounts for some 15% of the Universities budget and heavily cross subsidises other international and domestic activities. Annual quotas are set for each course RMIT International is completely funded from onshore international student fees. Its budget represents approximately 7% of international student fees.

* RMIT International has a governing board which is also the Major International Projects Committee of the RMIT Council.

(c) **RMIT Penang Campus**

* The Academic Director of the Penang Campus is responsible for the development of academic programmes on the Penang Campus and in the development of industry and research links for the Campus.

* The RMIT development in Penang is the first true offshore campus development by an Australian university, rather than twinning programmes that offer contracted programmes via an offshore professional society, private provider or educational institution.

**International Committees**

* The RMIT Council has formed a **Major International Projects Committee (MIPC)** which approves major international projects and international strategy and has an overview role on all RMIT international activities.
the International Student Program Advisory Committee (ISPAC) provides advice to the Dean of International programmes on student support related issues and carries out regular perception surveys and performance analysis of the program.

The International Scholarship Committee (ISC) administers RMIT and Australian Government scholarship schemes as well as the Special Financial Support Scheme for international students.

The International Student Adviser Network links central and faculty employed international student advisers and provides support for faculty based advisers.

The Offshore Initiatives Review Committee (OIRC) is chaired by the DVC (International) and provides advice to the VC on the approval of commercial and co-operative international agreements and maintains the internal project approval process. Major projects are referred to MIPC from this committee.

Country Reference Groups are informal groups established for each of the major countries in the region that provide a forum for staff with interests in a particular country to input into the strategy development process.

Faculty Activities

Faculties, and their teaching departments, have considerable discretion to undertake international activities within RMIT’s international strategy and via institutional approval processes. Faculties (and individual Departments) may develop linkages and specific co-operative programmes such as joint research staff exchange, staff and student study tours, undertake offshore training and twinning programmes, recommend quotas and fees for international students, provide local advisers and other support for international students.

Most Faculties have a Faculty wide responsibility for internationalisation vested in an Associate Dean or similar position. Departments are also likely to have a staff member with international responsibilities. Faculties and Departments are expected to have international targets built into annual performance plans. The Dean of Faculty has a responsibility to the Deputy Vice Chancellor (International) for the internationalisation of the Faculty within RMIT’s international
strategy. The annual strategy development process also involves extensive feedback from Faculties.

Many offshore training and award programmes, and education abroad opportunities arise because of Faculty contacts and involvement. This continues to be an important ingredient of RMIT’s success.

Finance

The major funding source for international activities is international student fees which will provide some AUD$44 million in 1996. The distribution of these funds is the subject of an approved funding model that ensures that all administrative cost centres are funded at the same level as for domestic students. Additionally, funded from this source are: the marketing activity by RMIT International, the UOIP, a capital component of between $600 and $3600 per student (depending on the course) and direct support services such as concurrent English language support. The above fee allocations are absolute dollar amounts and represent 45-55% of the fee level (depending on the fee for the particular course). The balance is provided to the teaching area. The fee is struck to generate a surplus for the teaching area over the cost of teaching domestic students. Similar overhead models are in place for offshore projects and twinning programmes. These direct approximately 25% of the RMIT gross fee to central areas.

Australian Government funding is no longer sufficient to allow Departments the flexibility to use core funding for a wide range of activities such as conference attendance, research, etc. These additional activities including international activities are funded from extra income such as international student fees. Teaching departments typically would spend these funds on additional teaching and administrative staff, conferences, international student advisers, equipment laboratories and research.

Approximately 10% of the overhead amount from the international student fee distribution goes to a central fund controlled by the Vice Chancellor for major international initiatives. RMIT has a strategic initiatives fund that is an off-the-top amount from domestic funding. From time to time these funds are used to support internationalisation of the curriculum projects.

Faculties and Departments “underwrite” the start-up costs for most new international projects with RMIT underwriting of large scale projects such as in Penang. Projects are subjected to financial scrutiny by the Business Advisory Service and a strictly enforced approval process. This process serves to ensure that projects are in accord with strategy and are financially within their capacity of the cost centre. It should be noted that this does not mean that any particular project must generate a surplus but that the costs and

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any income from the project are well defined. Where projects generate deficits against the cost centre budget, the source of this “subsidy” is identified.

Key Elements for Successful Internationalisation

The development of a successful strategy that leads to real actions rather than just talk, requires the commitment of senior management to provide a focus for the university’s activities as well as a framework that supports initiatives from teaching areas. It is this “balance” that although sometimes uncomfortable and the source of tension, is the most important aspect of developing a strong international tradition.

Administrative systems must be in place to support the strategy and to ensure it is not an empty document. These systems must also provide the way for commercial and non-commercial activities to proceed. Reward systems for staff must be in place to ensure that “international” activity is recognised in the promotion and tenure processes.

In placing international student recruitment in a wholly owned private company, RMIT has ensured that commercial decisions can be taken in a framework which is free of the restraints of “public sector” systems that exist within the university. This only works because the application of internal RMIT academic and support policies provides a balance with these “commercial” interests.

Many universities make it a prime responsibility of teaching areas to develop international co-operative links and exchanges with overseas universities. While the involvement of teaching staff is an important ingredient, it has been RMIT’s experience that central co-ordination and overview of the development of links and the creation of exchange opportunities ensure that opportunities are available across the university community. RMIT is reported to have the largest number of co-operative agreements of any Australian university. An annual review undertaken by the Education Abroad Manager ensures that agreements are active. The ingredients of success are that no agreement is entered into without a plan, however brief, for activity under the agreement.

In general, academic and administrative services relating to international students are “mainstreamed” following their arrival at RMIT. However, international students often face problems of adapting to a new environment, language and culture not experienced for domestic students. It is for this reason that specialist services for students such as concurrent language support, drop-in centres and international student advisers and counselors are provided.
The **achievement of a balance between incoming and outgoing student exchange numbers** is important in reinforcing the partnership concept in international activities. There is now a growing demand for RMIT students to participate in exchanges and the balance problem is not seen as a serious ongoing difficulty. The UMAP program has contributed significantly to encouraging outgoing students to seek Asian destinations and has assisted in building the size of the program by providing financial support for up to 30 outgoing students a year.

The ability of RMIT teaching and administrative staff to be able to operate successfully in a cross-cultural environment is an important part of RMIT’s internationalisation. In the past, a large number of programmes have been operated for staff, but mainly on an ad hoc basis. From 1996, there will be a more systematic approach to "**cross-cultural support for staff**" by the provision of centrally operated training programmes and the resourcing of specific projects to enhance the capability of staff to work in a multi-cultural environment.

In the development of support for international students, RMIT has come to the realisation that by **engaging international students in a range of cultural, social and community events**, many potential problems can be avoided or dealt with at an early stage. The great need is to find ways of extending often quite small programmes targeted at a specific sub-group, to one that is generally available.

**Monitoring of quality** is a crucial factor in an effective internationalisation program. Specific initiatives planned or in place at RMIT include:

* Annual entrance, ongoing students and exit surveys. These will provide a longitudinal study of student perceptions of RMIT and will be a means of targeting support services.

* A statistical analysis of international student performance, to be repeated on an annual basis, which compares international and Australian students by field of study, gender, English language background, country of origin and other factors.

* A bi-annual survey of staff involved in international programmes
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Introduction

“Internationalisation” is a word with new currency in the lexicon of Canadian higher education. This term - and its consequences, both conceptual and practical - is resonating across Canada’s universities more rapidly than one might have expected even a scant few years ago. Most institutions have embraced, at least at the rhetorical level, the goals of internationalising their learning environments, their public service, and their research agendas. One vexing paradox accompanying this welcome trend is that just when resources are needed to support the growing internationalisation of Canadian universities, the severe impact of budget reduction and fiscal restraint is creating a major barrier to the implementation of new initiatives. Nonetheless, a great deal of progress has been made in recent years. This chapter examines several features of the evolving internationalisation of Canadian universities before presenting a case study from which one or two useful lessons might be drawn.

The National Scene

Canada’s 88 universities serve a population of roughly 29 million citizens spread across the ten provinces and two territories of the Commonwealth’s largest country. University governance parallels that of most Commonwealth countries. A President/Rector/Principal serves as Vice Chancellor; a Chancellor presides at ceremonial functions; a board or council and an elected academic senate constitute the decision-making structure. Typically faculties or colleges are divided into departments and schools for the delivery of academic programmes. Students fill elected positions on Senates and boards, and participate in university committees. Participation rates are among the highest in the world. Virtually all universities are publicly financed. A majority of undergraduate students are female. International students come from over 200 countries and territories, although the numbers are presently in decline (from nearly 38,000 in 1992 to under 37,000 in 1994-95); Canada is about the fifth country of choice for the international student population. Other special features include high female enrollments, the growing participation of mature students and the tradition of links to the community through distance learning and university extension of various kinds.

Evolving Canadian Experience, 1950-1990

In Canada, after a protracted period of Euro-centric teaching and learning, it is now largely accepted wisdom that there should be a strong and more
broadly based international dimension to the university mission of teaching, research and public service. But this recognition grew more slowly in Canada than in metropolitan nations, that were forced by their colonial hegemonic positions in the world to be outward-looking. That advantage provided a motivation for international and comparative scholarship to take root much earlier in their universities. Canada, itself a former colony, shared neither that metropolitan world view nor the global ambition. However, as Canada matured into a so-called ’middle power’ following World War II, its universities, albeit in unplanned and idiosyncratic fashion, began gradually to confront new national and global realities.

Nevertheless, some individual scholars and institutions had earlier begun to take a wider view. Hamlin (1964), in his review of international studies in Canadian universities, pointed out that in 1947 it was possible for a BA student at the University of British Columbia to do a degree in international relations (probably the first major disciplinary manifestation of international study in Canadian universities). Not a mean achievement given the fact that in 1942 only six Canadian universities offered political science as a discipline. Even more noteworthy is the fact that in the 1920s Dalhousie University offered a course in international relations and several universities, in the aftermath of World War I, offered courses on International Law (Hamlin 1964).

But it was the period of rapid decolonization, Canada’s evolving middle-level international roles (especially following the Suez Crisis of 1957), the rapid growth in international student numbers and the growth of overseas development assistance that influenced universities most directly in the sixties and seventies in the direction of at least token recognition that in teaching especially (if not until later in research), they needed to acknowledge the rapid change in world realities. Walmsley, in her analysis of international development activity in Canadian academe, observed that Canadian academics, caught up in these sweeping changes to their external environment, “found themselves involved internationally more or less in spite of themselves,” (Walmsley 1970). Access to funding from the External Aid Office (precursor of the Canadian International Development Agency) offered Canadian university personnel a whole new horizon of opportunity. The watershed was the creation of the Colombo Plan in January, 1950 by Australia, Britain, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand and Pakistan, an event that marked the beginning of Canadian bilateral international assistance as an organised expression of foreign policy. From that decision evolved two main themes that have characterised the international dimension of Canadian universities ever since - the international student presence and development cooperation.

More recently, the repertoire of international activity has grown rapidly, with the current explosive growth of study abroad and exchange programmes probably being the most significant growth area. These two major forces - the
international student presence and development cooperation - have had immense influence on the internationalisation process in Canadian universities.

Since the international student presence in Canada has historically been related to development cooperation, this matter is worth some additional comment. CIDA, from the sixties to the present and through its partnerships with Canadian universities, provided the single most significant stimulus to the international experience of Canadian academics. Canada developed an important policy orientation to Third World development in the sixties and seventies, and for a period Canadian higher education played a role in development assistance somewhat disproportionate to its collective experience in developing countries. That experience gave hundreds of academics in anglophone and francophone Canada exposure to non-western cultures and to global issues that otherwise would have been much more difficult to obtain. That development exposure was a springboard to much of the subsequent expansion into study abroad and exchanges, curriculum development, research, institutional linkages and other expressions of internationalisation. Indeed most (though not all) international offices in Canadian universities began life as international development offices; though a number are still largely development-oriented, most have expanded their mandate into more broadly defined areas of internationalisation. Parenthetically, there are some in Canadian universities who view this long development emphasis as competitive with, if not inimical to, academic links with the industrialised world. A more realistic view is that they are complementary; moreover, many of Canada’s recent links with Europe and Australasia arise directly from the experience of academics whose initial ‘internationalisation’ occurred in developing countries.

To promote research on international issues, an original Canadian institution, the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), was created in 1970. Its focus on building research capacity in developing countries caught the world’s attention. Its links to Canadian and developing country universities provided a much-needed stimulus to development-oriented research and its positive impact on universities in Canada and around the world has been considerable.

It was also during this period of growth and ferment in Canadian higher education in the sixties and seventies that a number of programmes in European, Soviet and East European Studies appeared in several universities. Political scientists, sociologists, geographers, educationists and other academics, largely in the social sciences, engaged in bringing scholarly attention to these areas of the world.
Internationalisation Described

Several authors have described the portfolio of activities characteristic of universities attempting to internationalise and have offered useful definitions of internationalisation (Harari 1989; Klasek et al. 1992; Francis 1993; Knight 1993). An inclusive list of descriptors, at least for Canadian universities, includes an explicit mission statement, study abroad, student and faculty (staff) exchange, international content in curricula, area and international studies programmes, development cooperation (formerly ‘development assistance’), inter-university linkage agreements, the presence of international students, collaborative research, university partnerships within Canada for international collaboration, development or global education (both on the campus and with local communities), library and resource base development, reception of visiting scholars, language study, private sector partnerships in development cooperation projects, student work placements (co-operative education) abroad, short-term training for foreign nationals (students, researchers, professionals) and a reception, protocol, co-ordinating and administrative office that supports and encourages this array of activities.

The Present Picture

In the seventies, eighties and now in the nineties, the pattern of international activity in Canadian universities has evolved rather dramatically. As of 1995, the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) databases identify over 1,800 institutional agreements between Canadian and overseas universities and over 2,000 development cooperation projects linking Canadian universities and their partners in the South. These latter data underline the continuing centrality of South-North partnerships to the internationalisation of Canada’s universities, though this situation appears to be changing.

A 1991 AUCC survey reported that 68 per cent of universities were offering study abroad programmes (Doiron 1991). In 1993, AUCC published a compendium of international studies that listed academic offerings of an explicitly international nature in 71 universities, including area studies programmes, business, agriculture, education, law, environment, international relations, international development and native studies (AUCC 1993). Even if one argues that the inclusion of Canadian aboriginal studies confuses these findings somewhat, the trend is clear.

In early 1995, the AUCC general membership approved a policy statement on internationalisation that proposed a framework for university internationalisation emphasizing developing the potential of students as global citizens, providing a forum for global learning and debate, fostering international scholarly cooperation, enhancing Canadian student mobility and the presence of international students in Canada, and contributing to development assistance (AUCC, 1995). (Note the blend of new and
traditional themes in this list, ) The statement went on to comment on the contribution to internationalisation of clear mission statements, commitment by senior university leaders, administrative policies, research endeavors, community service, and an appropriate political policy framework (provincial and federal in Canada’s case),

Still more recently in 1995, AUCC published the results of the largest survey to date of internationalisation in Canadian higher education (Knight 1995). Representatives of 65 of the 88 institutions responded (73 per cent). This study is revealing and highly germane and constitutes a status report on the degree of internationalisation of Canadian universities in the mid-90’s. The results are summarised as follows:

* Rationale for Internationalisation

Preparing internationally knowledgeable graduates and addressing the interdependent nature of the world were the two most important reasons cited. Addressing international issues through research, acknowledging Canada’s ethnic diversity, maintaining Canada’s competitiveness, contributing to social transformation, and contributing to national security ranked far below these two.

* The Priority for Internationalisation

Thirty-five per cent of respondents allocated a high priority to internationalisation and 47 per cent ranked it as medium priority. Only four per cent indicated that internationalisation had no priority. Regarding changes in interest level over the past three years, 89 per cent of the respondents stated that teaching faculty are demonstrating greater interest, and 84 per cent felt that senior administrators were showing greater interest. The measure of increased interest was primarily through greater awareness, new world study abroad programmes, increased research collaboration, additional exchange agreements and new policy developments.

* Structures and Systems

Over 70 per cent of the institutions responding have an explicit reference to the importance of an international dimension in their mission statements, 67 per cent were considering internationalisation issues in strategic planning and 66 per cent have an international office and related operational procedures.
* **Organisational Factors**

The most important organisational supports, in descending order, for internationalisation were Boards of Governors, senior administrators, faculty (staff), experienced personnel, external funding agencies, the international office and adequate resources. Less important were communication channels, publicity, annual plans and budgets, and policy statements.

* **Leadership**

Here, as might be predicted, the five major leadership roles are taken, in order, by the president, the international officer, the Vice-President (academic), deans and faculty members.

* **Important Elements in Internationalisation**

Student mobility and curriculum were the two activities cited in Knight’s study as most important, followed by international students, faculty exchange and travel and international development projects. Area studies, language study and community links were ranked low.

* **Present Activities**

Seventy-two per cent of the responding institutions offer study abroad opportunities for undergraduates. Only nine per cent require a foreign language for graduation. About one-third maintain alumni groups abroad but only 31 per cent recruit students through participation in international education fairs. Only one-quarter have percentage goals for international student enrollments; they average seven per cent. Over two-thirds administer development projects, and more than half of the respondents operate faculty exchanges and development education activities. Regions of greatest interest are, in order, Asia-Pacific, Mexico-Latin America, the USA, and Africa. The areas of least interest are the Middle East, former Soviet Union and Central/Eastern Europe.

* **Changes From 1991 to 1993**

In the period between the 1991 AUCC survey and Knight’s 1993 study, several trends appear. Second language requirements dropped significantly; work/study (co-operative education) terms grew in number; universities developing alumni associations abroad doubled in number; overseas marketing remained “unaggressive” (Knight 1995); and more universities had an international element in their mission statements. Even more universities reported the disquieting fact that
performance evaluations failed to recognise explicitly the participation of academics in international activities. As well, a marked drop in interest in Africa was notable. Readers are directed for further details to Knight’s excellent study for AUCC (Knight 1995). For a more contextual treatment of the Canadian university internationalisation environment, see Berry (1993). For a discussion of specific elements of internationalisation, see Knight (1994).

University Networks

Several types of networks link universities around the world and Canadian universities are involved in all of the following:

South-North Networks

A number of exchanges and study abroad opportunities have emerged from 25 years of cooperation between universities in developed and developing countries. Admittedly, these programmes tend to benefit, for financial reasons, the more affluent students from the North and less so the more economically disadvantaged students from universities in the South. Other problems, in addition to cost, make these networks difficult to maintain, like uncertain communication, the difficulty of ensuring academic quality and the risk of paternalism.

In Canada, most South-North university links build directly on development cooperation. This is true, as well, for some other university partnerships (Shute 1994a), For example, in 1982 the University of Guelph and Wageningen Agricultural University in the Netherlands initiated triangular links between themselves and several universities in the South with which both have worked over some years (van den Bor, Shute and Moore 1989; Shute and van den Bor 1994). CIDA-supported university partnerships and IDRC-supported research links have also contributed significantly to South-South (and North-South-South) connections. The tie to development cooperation continues, frequently with the great advantage of access to Official Development Assistance funds. Two tiers of North-South university cooperation are supported in Canada within the Official Development Assistance funding envelope, one administered by AUCC (Tier Two) and one by CIDA (Tier One), (For a discussion of co-operative research networks, see Bernard 1988.)

North-North Networks

The majority of university networks linking Canada with other countries arise from the long-standing historical and cultural links with Western Europe, the USA, Australia and New Zealand. More recently, those connections have been extended to Eastern Europe and the former Soviet bloc, often for similar
cultural and historical reasons, as well as to Japan. For these networks, funding is thin indeed and is usually generated on a case-by-case basis. One exception is The Ontario-Four Motors program which links Ontario universities with universities in individual states or provinces of Italy, France, Germany, Spain and, more recently, Wales, as one part of larger intergovernmental cultural agreement. Ontario students studying in those universities receive some provincial government support. Canadian students do not typically receive grants for university study and need to find most of their own funds. Extending this model to exchanges with other jurisdictions in the world would undoubtedly hold some appeal for Canadian universities, funding being a persistent constraint.

The Commonwealth Network (CUSAC)

In 1992, following a meeting in Singapore, the Commonwealth Secretariat proposed a student mobility scheme designed primarily to increase the flow of undergraduate students within the Commonwealth from North to South. In 1993, 11 universities in Australia, Britain and Canada formally linked with 17 in the tropical Commonwealth to implement this plan, called the Commonwealth Universities Study Abroad Consortium (CUSAC). Shared academic culture, a common language and a formal framework were the advantages to the scheme originally put forward by Elizabeth Dines (Dines 1992). Subsequent meetings in Delhi, London, Swaziland and Perth have fleshed out the concept, formalised it in a signed multilateral agreement and begun to make it operational.

In the 1994-95 academic year, despite the standard difficulties of the lack of financial support (even from the Commonwealth itself) and communication difficulties among and between continents, a number of students were on the move within CUSAC. In 1995 the consortium also decided to expand its numbers significantly. An unanticipated benefit of the scheme is that Australian and Canadian partners within CUSAC are now exchanging students and strengthening university relationships North-North within the Commonwealth, and several universities in the South are proposing to build South-South links within CUSAC. A number of francophone Canadian universities participate in a similar manner in a parallel organisation, AUPELF, the Association of French Language Universities.

In-Country Networks

In Canada, universities are developing domestic networks in support of various kinds of international activity. Somewhat analogous to Europe’s ERASMUS, Canadian universities support student mobility between and among the provinces, for example, CUSEC (Canadian University Student Exchange Consortium). As well, intra-Canadian consortia have been established to collaborate in development cooperation with partner universities.
in the South under Canada’s ODA program. One example is the Canadian University Technology Consortium, an association of four Canadian universities currently working with a Thai partner institution. Also in the past two years university partnerships with private sector firms have been developed in order to bid for development projects related to human resource development in the South. One such arrangement, the Canadian Higher Education Group, links five Ontario universities (Carleton, Guelph, McMaster, Waterloo, Western Ontario) with a private firm.

Research Networks

International collaboration in research has gone on informally for decades, though there is doubtless a much greater volume of collaborative contacts now than at any time in the past. Most of these research connections are North-North in nature, for rather obvious financial and research infrastructure reasons. Indeed, few researchers, particularly in the natural and applied sciences, do not have international research associates and collaborators. In Canada, IDRC and to a lesser extent CIDA and the research granting councils have provided the principal mechanisms, including funding, for North-South, South-North and South-South research collaboration.
CASE STUDY OF A CANADIAN UNIVERSITY: THE UNIVERSITY OF GUELPH

The Institution

In many ways the University of Guelph can be taken as representative of Canadian university experience in international cooperation. It is a mid-sized publicly funded multi-faculty university offering both undergraduate and graduate programmes, and although it was historically first off the mark, its evolution is mirrored to a large degree in the internationalisation efforts of many other Canadian universities. And so this case is offered partly to be broadly representative and partly to illustrate one institution’s response to changing circumstances and challenges.

History

Guelph was probably the first university in Canada to publish a mission statement that reflected institutional consensus through Senate debate. In 1972 a commitment to the “international dimension” was clearly expressed (Aims and Objectives of the University 1972). Later, in 1985, a more elaborate mission statement was drafted. It committed the university to “incorporate an appropriate international perspective into all parts of the university” (Toward 2000).

But Guelph’s internationalisation can be traced back several years before the 1972 Aims. The founding colleges at Guelph - agriculture, home economics and veterinary medicine - had established an outreach tradition even before the creation in 1964 of the new University of Guelph. The first international student, for example, came to the veterinary college from the Caribbean in 1876. As early as April 1965, the Senate of the university appointed a Committee on International Studies to examine the place of international activities at Guelph. In 1967 the Committee recommended, among a series of 16 comprehensive recommendations to internationalise the university, the establishment of a Centre for International Programmes to co-ordinate the rather ambitious program reflected in the other 15 recommendations (Policy Guidelines 1967). Thus, in 1967 Canada’s first university international office or centre was initiated. To place this achievement in perspective, it should be noted that several Dutch, British and American universities had already effected similar arrangements. The Guelph effort was pioneering only in the rather more provincial Canadian setting of 1967 (Canada’s centennial year) - and this at a time of intense internal preoccupation in Canadian higher education with the issues of rapid growth in size and number of universities.
Strategic Plan

The process begun in 1966-67 continued into the 1994-95 strategic planning effort at Guelph which resulted in a document entitled *Making Change*. This plan, produced in the context of growing severity in resource constraint, identifies five major themes that will guide the university’s future, one of which is “internationalism.” States the report: “In a world characterised by the increasing flow of people; ideas, information, capital, and products across national boundaries, we must be prepared to interact in positive ways with other cultures and global issues.” After listing several ways of implementing this interaction, the report goes on: “Above all, we have a responsibility to foster a global perspective and knowledge of other cultures in our students.” Several additional specific recommendations follow.

Types of Collaboration

Aside from mission statements, what has been the pattern of concrete international experience at the University of Guelph? These are some of the principal elements in the Guelph international profile that have evolved from the 1967 Senate action:

* Development Cooperation. In 1969-70, the university entered into what became a highly successful institutional strengthening partnership, funded by CIDA, with the University of Ghana. This project led to measurable benefits to both universities in both institutional terms (staff development, library development), academic output (190 publications, theses and conference presentations) but also to a continuing relationship between the two universities, another development-based CIDA-financed project with Guelph, a continuous flow of Ghanaian students to Guelph, the development of an institutional agreement, clear influence on subsequent Guelph faculty international experience, impact on curriculum at Guelph, as well as to the less tangible benefits of heightened awareness and sensitivity to global issues at Guelph (Shute 1994b).

Since 1970, the University of Guelph has managed 70 development cooperation projects in 30 developing countries, most with university partners in those countries. The total value of that work since 1970 (both outside funds and university contributions) has been some $C69 million. At present, the University administers eight CIDA-supported development cooperation projects in nine countries worth $C7.5 million. This experience, as at most Canadian universities, laid the foundation for subsequent more broad-gauged internationalisation initiatives.
International Students. International students have come to Guelph in substantial numbers, constituting 15 years ago some ten per cent of total enrolment. With the imposition in the eighties of differential fees for international students by most provincial governments in Canada, (only a fraction of which are retained by universities themselves), the proportion has dropped to merely four per cent in the current academic year.

In 1994-95, 528 students from 77 countries studied at Guelph. While undergraduate international student numbers have dropped significantly over the past few years, graduate student numbers rose equally significantly to 1995-96. About 16 per cent of all graduate students at Guelph were international students in 1994-95 (while the undergraduate population was slightly more than two per cent). These students add immeasurably both to the quality of the student body and to the opportunity for Canadian students to interact with people from non-Canadian cultures, not to mention their huge contribution to research output.

It is interesting to observe the changes in the international student population brought about by increasing exchange student numbers. In 1993-94, the five primary countries of origin were China, Kenya, USA, Ghana and India. In 1994-95, the five primary countries of origin were Hong Kong, Malaysia, U. K., China and France.

Study Abroad and Exchange. Emerging in the eighties, this feature of internationalisation has grown dramatically in the very recent past, despite resource constraints. The programmes are sometimes tied to existing formal university partnerships and sometimes operate independently of such formal links. About 250 Guelph students studied outside Canada in 1994-95 (of a total student population of about 14,000) and this number is likely to increase fairly rapidly because of student demand, greater opportunity, and encouragement by the university.

At present, the university has over 60 institutional agreements (not including CUSAC and Ontario-Four Motors), 36 exchange programmes, and semesters abroad in London, Paris, Krakow and Jaipur. These university-to-university agreements all provide for exchanges of students and staff, and for research collaboration. In addition, many students study abroad independently, particularly graduate students conducting fieldwork. The University of Guelph is a member of CUSAC, the European Association for International Education and the Inter-American Organisation for Higher Education and several other organisations promoting the international mobility of students. With the proliferation of opportunities and the high priority
being attached to this effort, the university hired a full-time study abroad and exchange manager in 1995.

* \textit{Curriculum Development.} Incorporating international content into course offerings is related partly to student interest but largely to faculty initiative and experience, as well as to the recognition by the institution in its formal curriculum creation and approval process that the global perspective is important and must be given greater prominence. These influences prompted Guelph to establish a minor in International Agriculture in 1972 (complete with an alternating Caribbean and Mexico field course) in the agriculture degree program. More recently, the BA program has offered a minor and a major in International Development. In 1992, an inter-departmental MA/MSc degree in international development was initiated, largely by the College of Social Science. International graduate study streams exist in several other departments and several degree programmes offer field courses abroad, from Iceland to Jamaica. While it is still possible for an undergraduate to earn a Guelph degree without formal exposure to global issues in an academic program, it is less and less likely to happen. At the graduate level, international study is encouraged through credit (and transcript recognition) for international study - the International Study Option.

The university has provided an annual $10,000 fund for international field studies open to all Guelph undergraduate and graduate students on a competitive application basis. These grants have enabled 63 students since 1991 to spend periods of study outside Canada that complement their academic programmes at Guelph. Nonetheless, the view at Guelph is that much more needs doing in the curriculum area, partly because most students will not be able to study overseas and must therefore rely on campus-based education for their ‘internationalisation.’

* \textit{Faculty Experience.} All internationalisation efforts depend on the initiative, energy and experience of faculty members. Without them, no combination of mission statements, development contracts or administrative goodwill can bring about desirable internationalisation objectives. Several features of the Guelph faculty profile have made possible what has been achieved to date. One is its basic cosmopolitan make-up, a function in part of the massive recruitment in the sixties and seventies of both non-Canadian academics and Canadian faculty trained abroad. Another is the university’s early involvement in development projects and its carryover impact on subsequent curriculum and related developments. Another is related to the links established with former international students now at work in institutions in their home countries (or elsewhere), Still another is the
cumulative experience and breadth of interests characteristic of a multi-disciplinary university with several professional faculties. An estimated 300 of 750 faculty members have substantial (that is, serious academic) experience internationally, about 150 of them in developing countries. It is faculty interest, experience and networks that continue to drive internationalisation at Guelph.

* Policy and Management. Given the variety and complexity of the issues and structures related to internationalisation, an international office or centre was needed on the university campus. It seems now that the 1967 University of Guelph Senate decision was far-sighted, not to say highly utilitarian, in that the structure then created has served the university well. Now almost all Canadian universities have an International Liaison Officer who is a point of contact with international agencies (and especially AUCC’s International Relations and Programmes Division which acts as a national secretariat for university presidents and international offices on international issues). A university office, appropriately staffed and funded from the university’s operating budget, is probably the most effective mechanism for co-ordinating and stimulating the implementation of university objectives in the internationalisation sphere (Keenan and Vallee 1994).

In the Guelph case, the Centre for International Programmes is staffed by a small group of four (Director, Study Abroad and Exchange Manager, Information Clerk and Secretary), supported by steam of student ‘peer helpers.’ The Director reports to the Vice-President Academic. The decentralised Guelph approach places the responsibility for initiating, managing and reporting on international activities in academic departments. The Centre supports, encourages and assists these efforts - but does not manage them.

The mechanism, of course, pre-supposes the existence of policy. Here the University of Guelph has the advantage of the 1967 Senate policy, the 1972, 1986 and 1995 mission statements, and a series of policy statements governing the international work of the university. While this policy framework is indispensable, it continues to evolve as internal and external circumstances change.

Lessons from Guelph Experience

At Guelph staff have learned over the years that campus circumstances, resource availability, the provincial and federal political context, the world situation, and university leadership change and shift unpredictably over time, and therefore that few policies and practices are fixed or immutable. Nonetheless six lessons are summarised here as worth noting. They are not
presented as what is best in Canada, or most extensive or comprehensive. Each university develops, in Knight’s words “its own organisational culture which affects institutional and attitudinal change” (Knight 1993). These ‘lessons’ grow out of Guelph’s culture and experience.

* Policy, initially expressed in the university’s mission statement, is a sine qua non of internationalisation. Only when the university’s mandate explicitly exhibits a long-term commitment to an international perspective grounded overtly in the university’s academic mission can any coherent approach to international activities be assumed by the institution. Moreover, such a public commitment gives notice to those inside the university who may feel that the international dimension is unnecessary or marginal that they, too, are bound to support the mandate.

Naturally, not all constituencies in a university will feel bound by a mission statement to which they have not had an opportunity to contribute. The process, therefore, of developing a mission statement is highly germane to this principle, as agreement can only be derived from broad participation by the academic community in the modification of existing, or the creation of new, mission statements. We should not be deluded that mission statements alone bring about institutional consensus or action; implementation is another issue (and a more difficult process). Nonetheless, grounding internationalisation in the university’s fundamental policy framework is imperative, in Guelph’s experience.

* It follows that implementing an internationalisation policy makes strenuous demands on academic faculty, students, support staff and administrators, particularly when it is easier to move in some directions than in others. Guelph, for example, provided for many years a hospitable environment for international students in numbers far out of proportion to the university’s total enrollments. That enrolment situation has now changed and has required Guelph to review its reception of international students.

Similarly, it has been a relatively simple matter to develop exchange agreements with a substantial number of European universities, given the faculty experience base, and concomitantly more difficult to implement exchange agreements with universities in the non-western world. Guelph has now accepted the principle of ‘balance’ (among regions and disciplines) to help review and re-orient the portfolio of formal institutional agreements. Implementation, then, in some sort of locally-defined institutional balance is probably necessary in order to avoid skewing a university’s range of international activities. This
balance” between wide global approach and a sharper geographical focus is still being debated at Guelph.

The senior university administration, especially the President/Vice-Chancellor and Vice-President Academic/Deputy Vice-Chancellor, must be committed to the university’s international mandate if more than lip-service is to be paid to the mission statement’s international perspective. Otherwise, university commitments may be stuck at the level of rhetoric and high-mindedness. It is critical that the senior decision-making councils, prompted preferably by personal as well as institutional motives of senior administrators, support and allocate resources to the international initiatives of universities. (At the faculty level, the same observation applies to deans, and at the department level, to chairs.) At the same time, it is only realistic to recognise that not everyone in the university moves in unison. Not all deans or academics accord equally high priority to the international perspective, sometimes seeing international activities as competing with local and domestic programmes.

A management, co-ordination and administrative mechanism within the university can promote the implementation of policy and stimulate the achievement of internationalisation objectives, Canadian models vary a good deal, ranging from vesting international responsibilities in a non-academic manager as one of many functions, to allocating the institutional responsibilities to an academic or research vice president. Whatever the approach, it should be rooted in the culture and ethos of each institution, not imposed or imported. Whatever model is adopted or adapted, the office or centre should have:

* A university-wide role
* Access to senior administration, academic departments and faculties, and to the academic decision-making committee apparatus.
* A director or manager with sufficient academic credentials to facilitate this,
* An information/communication ‘switchboard’ role, partly because of the plethora of information moving into and out from universities. In this function might be included the cumulative institutional memory in the form of the ‘international’ database of the institution.
* Central funding from university operating funds as a concrete indication of the institution’s commitment to pursue
internationalisation, rather than being financed, as are some international offices in Canadian universities, from the overhead of development projects.

* It is never untimely to pursue the establishment of a university international perspective. Put another way, to avoid 'internationalising' because of retrenchment, restraint or re-structuring constitutes a false distinction. A great deal can be done to internationalise the university with little or no specialised or additional resource allocations, such as course development, organizing exchange agreements and collaborative research, planning sabbaticals and so on. In Canada, some universities have relied almost totally on CIDA and IDRC funding to finance their total (and thus rather narrow) array of international activities, taking willy-nilly the view that international development cooperation, with its attendant overheads, consciousness-raising and feelings of goodwill, is enough. Too often such decisions, while useful in themselves, fail to prompt parallel initiatives in curricular changes, longer-term institutional cooperation prospects and links with industrialised country universities, and most regretfully make little or no effort to integrate international experience into teaching and learning on the home campus.

* Finally, current Canadian experience suggests that faculty interests, growing student demand and institutional sophistication are growing in spite of resource constraints (including relatively parsimonious CIDA support for university-managed development cooperation projects and programmes). As a consequence, some healthy examination of internationalisation, quite outside the traditional themes and motives identified at the beginning of this chapter, is underway in Canada.

The Future

Though unresolved and difficult issues face Canadian academe in its effort to become more cosmopolitan, this account should make it clear that immense change in this direction has occurred over the past two or three decades. A good deal remains to be done in Canada to widen student participation in study abroad and exchange schemes, to internationalise curricular offerings, to recognise and reward the international activities of academics, to resolve questions of language study, to maintain and expand the international experience of teaching faculty, to promote more international collaborative research, to identify regional/geographic areas of emphasis, to integrate development cooperation into mainstream university work, to persuade governments of the indispensable role of the university sector in international relations, to measure progress towards internationalisation and, not least, to find the resources (or appropriate resource allocation mechanisms) to make...
possible intensified, focused, pervasive and successful university internationalisation efforts.

It is this resource issue that now provides the stiffest test of the will of Canadian universities to internationalise. As Canadian universities are starved of funds and pushed to the wall to maintain quality, the toughest question for the rest of this decade turns on the competition within universities for the ever-shrinking funds needed to preserve their missions, including the international dimension of those missions.

The dilemma, too, of whether universities are educating global citizens or global competitors continues to be debated, as does the extent to which internationalisation efforts should be harmonised with or be independent of national political and economic objectives. Nonetheless, there seems to have emerged across Canadian higher education a consensus that internationalisation, for whatever mixture of motives, is not only desirable but necessary.
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The Context

Any discussion of international cooperation cannot be isolated from the discussion of policy making in higher education, the ideological orientations of the state and of the students and faculty of a specific university and the size of the higher education system.

The universities in India are pulled in different directions due to pressures from within and outside the system. Teacher and student unions are a critical internal source of pressure. Democratic politics and the demands placed on universities by national policies governing student intake, reservation of seats for specific groups of students on the basis of non-academic criteria, dependence for funds on state and central governments and political accountability arising therefrom are important external factors. Thus, the Vice Chancellors face a crisis situation in which institutional autonomy remains a theoretical proposition. The crisis is heightened by severe resource constraints since 1991-92, when the University Grants Commission froze the grants to the universities.

It may be mentioned here that central universities are in a somewhat better position than the state universities to resist political pressures. The private institutions, mostly offering technical and medical education (and more recently those offering management courses) are relatively free of these pressures but they are a small minority. They can also be more responsive to change because they depend on self-financing students and raise their own funds, but data about them are not yet collated.

Increasing numbers increase the pressures on quality institutions. The challenges are to sustain and improve the quality of higher education where enrollments exceed capacity, and standards have suffered.

Higher Education in India

According to the UGC Annual Report, 1993-94, there were 159 universities and 34 autonomous institutions. Of these 11 are central universities while the rest are state universities. Jawaharlal Nehru University, the subject of a case study later in this chapter, is a unitary central university. There are also the agricultural and technical universities. Certain institutions are regarded as institutions of national importance. These include the 5 Indian

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¹. All numbers in this chapter refer to the Notes preceding the bibliography
Institutes of Technology (IIT) ."The total enrolment in higher education in 1993-94 was estimated to be 5,065,575 and the number of teachers in higher education to be 64,847.

There are no private universities, though several private professional colleges are given the status of universities to grant degrees." However, all these have to be ‘recognised’ by and affiliated to a university. There are 8,210 (1993-94) colleges ."Nearly 70-80 percent of these are private, affiliated colleges (UGC 1994: 13). The fees, especially in colleges of general education, are very low. Private professional colleges, such as those of medicine and engineering, notably in Karnataka and Maharashtra, charge what is known as ‘cavitation fees’, which are ten to twelve times more than in a government college. The number of such colleges, however, is only 5-10 percent of the total.

The universities vary enormously in size, capacities, academic standards, and levels of discipline and efficiency. The quality of teaching and research varies from excellent to bad or indifferent (Altbach and Chitnis 1993).

International Collaboration in Higher Education

The Indian government has taken specific policy decisions and issued guidelines to institutions of higher education for the promotion of international collaboration. Even though the research agencies ICSSR, ICHR and CSIR were set up mainly to promote research within the country, an essential component of most of them has been the promotion of international collaboration. Special schemes for faculty and student exchange specifically with developing countries have been designed. The government also provides for fellowships, travel funds etc. to Indian faculty and students for research and study in the developed countries. There are several types of arrangements. Some are government to government such as the Cultural Exchange Programmes (CEP) which are usually multicomponent. The universities in two countries may also enter into a direct memorandum of understanding. Joint research projects may receive government funding, institutional support or funding from international development agencies. Individual faculty members may start a joint research project, or a faculty member may be a visiting professor at a foreign university on a regular basis for a semester every year or during the summer. However, CEPs are more broad based and are also assured of regular finding because of the commitment of the governments.

Foreign Students in India : Recent Trends

Receiving foreign students in India is a major activity of institutions of higher education (Ganguli 1975; Gandhi 1984).
In 1993-94, there were 13,866 and in 1989-90 12,606 foreign students in India. Of these, approximately 5-7 percent were sponsored candidates who receive scholarships. Most were full-time and self-financing. Information on self-financing students is not systematically collected at the national level; (there were approximately 20,000 according to ICCR, and 30-40,000 by other guestimates). Some countries send large numbers, such as Kenya, Sudan, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Mauritius, Nepal, Iran and Jordan. Some universities have more than 200 overseas students.

The demand for professional courses, such as medicine, business studies, and engineering, is high among students from developing countries or those who are new nations; for Islamic studies among those from the Middle East; for courses on Indian religion, art, music, culture and philosophy from developed countries. The students in the last category tend to be either short-term casual students or to come for fieldwork. The students coming from the Far East and South-East Asia prefer language training, social sciences and research programmes. Children of Indian emigrants (known as NRIs) show a preference for Indian studies, whether they come from the west or from Fiji, Mauritius or Trinidad, etc.

Private colleges of medicine, engineering and management are offering incentives to self-financing foreign students in the form of better and assured accommodation, food, and human relations. Some colleges are organised to provide educational consultancy and are setting up institutions of higher education in foreign countries. They are receptive to international collaboration.

Foreign students are sponsored under various schemes, some by the Indian Government through MOUs or CEPs, or through their institution/universities. The Berkeley Professional Studies Program (BPSP) brings 10-12 American graduate students for a year, who are affiliated to universities and institutions all over India. This programme is administered by co-ordinating offices at Berkeley and New Delhi. Faculty members from Delhi University co-ordinate the orientation programme. The students pay a small amount in USA, and after their arrival in India, they are fully funded through the US-India Rupee Fund.

Indian Students Going Abroad

The number of Indian students who went abroad for higher studies in all subjects, most of them self-financing, increased from 4,861 in 1990-91 to 6,466 in 1991-92. The number of women students was 798 in 1990-91 and 887 in 1991-92 (India, 1994). The highest number go to USA (5954 in 1991-92) with UK (193) and Australia (138) in the next two positions. The largest number go for engineering and related fields (2,511) followed by Science (1384); Commerce, Business Management and Administration (946); Medicine
The largest number of women candidates went for science subjects followed by engineering and arts. The scholarship division of the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) selects students with or without institutional affiliation in India, for doctoral and post-doctoral scholarships for study abroad. (Most of these scholarships are utilised unlike those available for study by foreign students in India.)

A recent development is the increasing interest of some foreign countries in attracting self-financing Indian students to their countries for higher education. India is seen as a big market for exploiting the export potential of institutions of higher education in the developed countries. This is also a result of the increased availability of foreign exchange to Indian citizens for education abroad. Australian universities are entering into twinning arrangements in India and are also likely to set up overseas campuses.

Government Agencies

The Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) is in charge of the overall policy thrust. It also gives clearance to all foreign collaborative arrangements between universities which concern faculty, students and research projects. Some institutions, such as the Institutes of Technology, have more autonomy, but no international collaboration is possible without clearance from some department/ministry of the government.

The Indian Council of Cultural Relations (ICCR) is the nodal agency for arranging the admission of most foreign students. It has been looking after the socio-cultural aspects of foreign students. It finances tours to places of interest in India and arranges cultural activities. It also provides funds to universities for payment of token honoraria to the foreign students’ advisors (FSA), for arranging cultural activities at the campus and outside and for hiring English language teachers, etc.

The University Grants Commission (UGC) is responsible for the development of bilateral linkages in specific areas between identified departments in universities. It implements those components of the CEPs which involve the university sector, e.g. visits of foreign delegations/scholars, faculty exchange, joint research or student exchange. At present there are 70 CEPs, of which approximately 40 have a faculty exchange component. Last year, 54 foreign scholars’ visits to various universities were arranged by the UGC, and 70 Indian scholars were sent abroad. The UGC also provides foreign language teachers to the universities. It allocates 20 fellowships for M.Phil and Ph. D programme and 7 research associateships in science, engineering, humanities and social sciences to scholars from developing countries.
It also implements a number of specific programmes, such as the British Council Academic Link Exchange Scheme and the academic staff schemes organised by the ACU.

Educational Consultants India Limited (Ed-CIL) is a public sector undertaking, which arranges, on a commercial basis, the admission of self-financing students, mostly to professional courses. It has entered into memoranda of understanding with some Indian institutions which provide the academic and other support structures for specially designed courses. It looks after all aspects of a student’s stay in India, from reception at the airport to monitoring academic progress and ensuring accommodation.

Conditions for Successful International Cooperation

The success rate is very high if movement is to the developed countries, and in both directions if a professional agency is involved. For example, the Shastri Indo-Canadian Institute is able to fully utilise the flow in both directions between Canadian and Indian universities. Foreign language teaching programmes and area studies attract students and funds to India. Low tuition fees, the use of English for instruction, and relatively good academic facilities are also an inducement.

Matching of interests of faculty, students and researchers on both sides is imperative. Unless faculty and students are placed in institutions and courses of their choice, they are unlikely to accept an award. For instance, there is preference for universities in the southern region in India, since the northern region is considered to be disturbed. Recognised institutions of high reputation are also preferred, as are those where there are other students from the home country. Human factors are crucial at all levels and in all activities.

Barriers

Notable hindrances are lack of information; bureaucratic hurdles in approving applications; time lag between the granting of admission and notification of the student; delay in timely release of funds for travel, fellowships and projects. These are far more complex in universities than in the research institutions where procedures are less bureaucratic. Some other administrative barriers are the absence of a centralised agency at the national level and an office at the institutional level, and the indifference of most foreign missions in India.

Even CEPs with assured regular funding may lapse on account of lack of interest or bureaucratic delays. MOUs between universities, on the other hand, may lapse or not be implemented because Indian funds were not available. If the MOU is with a developed country, one side may be
operationalised for a few years but cannot continue for long without reciprocity.

Cultural differences, including conceptual differences in the definition of projects, can impede if not understood properly. An example was a joint Indo-Canadian research project, in which different perceptions of hierarchy bothered the Canadians. The commonest socio-cultural barriers for staff training and for foreign students, however, are: different food habits; reluctance to adhere to hostel restrictions; culture shock on arrival in India; absence of any orientation course and absence of residential accommodation, which increases loneliness and emotional deprivation.

The academic barriers include lack of information on eligibility requirements, language disability and poor academic calibre of foreign students.

Most of these barriers may be imputed to scarcity of quality management and trained administrators, to poor organisation and planning and to lack of clear cut admission procedures and infrastructure and personnel directly entrusted with international collaboration.

Institutional Motives

Interviews with key personnel show that much co-operative activity is already taking place and that there is scope to harness the tremendous potential of the widespread view that knowledge and technology have no national boundaries. Opportunities are sought for academic exchange of experts, and for networking of individuals and institutions. Indian academics who go to foreign universities attract more students, and most collaborative research projects and exchange programmes are initiated because of direct contact between faculty members of involved universities.

External political and economic developments also influence international cooperation. For instance, JNU has a centre for Soviet and East European Studies in its School of International Studies and a Centre for Russian Language in the School of Languages. Proposals are being processed to introduce other Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) languages such as Uzbek, Ukrainian and Kazak, and also to expand the Area Studies Programme. India helps in training experts for other developing countries, thereby fulfilling international obligations. There are also political implications in establishing linkages with other developing countries and newly emerging nations through faculty exchange, staff training and students, who may be future bureaucrats, diplomats, etc.

Interaction with foreign faculty and the presence of foreign students has a beneficial influence on Indian students, who are exposed to varied cultural
influences without going abroad. On the other hand, foreign students who stay in India are instrumental in expanding the sphere of cultural influence.

Fees for Incoming, Students

A consensus is gradually emerging about charging higher fees to foreign students. It is felt that India has the skill, the knowledge and, in market terms, a valued commodity to sell. Therefore it should make it saleable and then charge more than full cost. It is being argued that the Indian Government should not subsidise the education of foreigners, and that if the rich countries can make money through the admission of foreign students, why should a poor country like India not do the same? The universities have been starved of funds, and have been asked to raise them from private sources. Foreign students’ fees are viewed as an important source for funding the development of campuses. Similarly, research projects are increasingly looked upon as a source for adding infrastructural facilities for which other funds are not available.

The higher fees should be used for resource mobilisation and to meet the expenses of educating the foreign students and providing extra facilities. Some argue in favour of making a profit, though a distinction may be made between sponsored and self-financing students and between those from the developed and developing countries.

At present, tuition fees vary considerably from university to university. Delhi University, with some 1300 foreign students, charges a one time registration fee of US$150 for undergraduate courses, US$200 for postgraduate courses and US$250 for research. The IITs have raised the fee to US$2000 per semester.

The funds raised from foreign students are used for different purposes. Some are merging it in the regular grant of the university as in JNU. On the other hand, Pune University has built an international students’ hostel and has used the funds for the development of the campus. Delhi University also set aside the funds and is now ready to build an international hostel for women students; it already has one for men.

Trends

There is official encouragement for self-funding international activities on the part of universities. Although there is at present no clear policy, for example, a message seems to have gone across to higher education institutions that higher fees can be charged from foreign students, and that collaborative arrangements can be made for joint research projects so long as the universities can raise the funds and do not approach the Government.
Other incentives are “the global explosion of knowledge, the rapid advance in information technology, and the desire to keep pace with the latest information in higher education. This trend is likely to consolidate further, as is evident from the number of proposals for cooperation received by JNU.

More international cooperation is therefore expected because of this change in perspective and of some roles (e.g. availability of foreign exchange to Indians, increased opportunity of foreign travel etc.).

More and more universities are going to charge higher fees to foreign students, while at the same time, there will be greater awareness that better facilities have to be provided. Courses and programmes suited to their requirements are likely to be introduced by universities, because they will be seen as financial assets, as they already are by private medical, management and engineering institutions. The fact that foreign students cannot work in India or get part time jobs will, however, remain a disincentive.

International development agencies’ interest in India also encourages collaborative research programmes and international linkages between departments and institutions\(^{20}\). Such funds are not free of ideological baggage, But once government permission has been procured, funds from these agencies flow without many bureaucratic hurdles thereby providing another incentive. A major problem is the unequal distribution of resources and inputs, financial and human. While a large part of the funds is earmarked for international salaries, much of the work is often done by the researchers in the developing countries.

Issues and Problems

Business and industry are already going ahead with international links and importing the latest technology; universities are no longer seen as change agents, because they are lagging behind in updating technology, laboratories and libraries, due to shortage of funds. International collaboration may offer a way out. However, there are no revised policies or guidelines for international collaboration; the old rules and procedures are still in place at the national, state and institutional levels. These create unnecessary hurdles and delays.

There is wide variation in the facilities available in the universities. JNU, the case study institution, is a central university and has better resources than the state universities, yet there is tremendous strain on its existing facilities. Knowledge generation is increasingly dependent on modern information technology. Universities will need support to provide facilities at international standards if they are to strengthen international collaboration. Even at some of the most highly regarded universities, foreign students complained of the poor, and declining, quality of teaching, equipment and facilities\(^{21}\).
The issue of quality of students, the selection procedure, and the dual fee structure are more prominent in technological than in general education. This is for two reasons. First, the students in the IITs are of uniformly high quality and are admitted through a very demanding selection procedure. In general education, however, there is wide variation in the quality of students. This is true even when entrance tests are conducted, as in JNU. The second reason is that technological education, especially at the IITs and Roorkee University, is very highly subsidised and places are very limited.

Concluding Comments

International cooperation is a dynamic process and is embedded in the macro socio-political context. Therefore, the managers have to be predisposed to discard or modify apriori assumptions about societies and cultures involved in cooperation. Interest of individual faculty, two way assured funding, sensitivity to other cultures, and a perception of equitable participation, are necessary pre-conditions for international cooperation in universities. In India, the imperative is to develop a policy for international cooperation. At present, the situation is extremely fluid because of the transition from a state subsidised system of higher education to self-financing and privatisation. The situation is expected to change within the next few years when a clear pattern may emerge.
CASE STUDY OF AN INDIAN UNIVERSITY: JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY

The Institution

JNU is a relatively young university, established in 1969 at New Delhi. An objective of JNU, as set out in the First Schedule of the JNU Act, 1966 reads as follows:

“To establish such departments or institutions as may be necessary for the study of languages, literature and life of foreign countries with a view to inculcating in the students a world perspective and international understanding;”

“To provide facilities for students and teachers from other countries to participate in the academic programmes and life of the University.”

It is different in its functions and scope from the conventional universities. For instance, this unitary residential university was established to promote research through its graduate teaching and doctoral programmes. It was one of the first universities to follow a semester system with credits and grade point and internal evaluation. In 1994 some 3,695 students (2,395 men, 1300 women) were enrolled in various courses. It has nine hostels with a total capacity of about 2,623 (1866 for men and 757 for women). The married students’ hostel has 56 units. The number of teachers was about 371 of which 79 were women.

The JNU is mainly a post-graduate and research university. Undergraduate courses are offered only in the School of Languages. It has seven schools, all of which are located on the campus. Besides, several institutes located all over India are its constituents for the purpose of granting degrees. The present study excludes them from discussion.

Another distinguishing feature is the emphasis on interdisciplinary studies in its teaching and research programmes. Each centre/school allows its students to take courses in allied and related fields offered in other centres/schools.

Thirdly, this is a national university drawing faculty and students from different parts of India. Therefore, it represents a mixture of different cultures from within India. Foreign students are a part of this cosmopolitan campus culture.

Every year there is an entrance examination at the national level. The medium of instruction in all programmes of studies (barring languages) is
English. The academic year is divided into two semesters; the monsoon and the winter semester.

The mode of assessment is internal and continuous except in the case of M.Phil dissertation and Ph.D thesis which are assessed by external examiners. Sessional work is assigned equal weightage with end-semester examination.

Foreign Students

Under the existing admission policy, a 10% quota is fixed for admission of foreign nationals; 5% of places can be for those appearing in the entrance examination and 5% for candidates from abroad whose cases are to be considered in absentia. This quota is applicable only to full-time students. Their number has varied from 43 in 1984-85 to 87 in 1995-96. Casual students and the country sponsored students vary from year to year and are not included in the 10%.

The overseas students can readmitted to all the courses, and generally take regular courses. But special courses have been offered in Hindi language to groups of students from South Korea, China, U.S.S.R. The schedule of admission is the same as for Indian students. Grant of admission does not ensure allotment of hostel accommodation, and most foreign students have to stay outside the campus. However, ICCR fellowship holders are assured of hostel accommodation.

International Cooperation

University policies are to be seen in the context of national policies. While internationalisation is an objective of the JNU Act, its implementation depends on national policies, rules and procedures.

Last year, JNU constituted three committees to consider and recommend a differential fee structure for foreign students; to consider cases of partial or full fee waivers for students from developing countries and those who are unable to pay tuition fee; and to look at all the proposals received either from centres within the university or from foreign governments/institutions of higher education for international collaboration in order to prepare guidelines and a uniform process within the university.

The first committee recommended a hike in the tuition fee for all foreign students, to US$750 per semester in science, and US$500 in the humanities and social sciences, plus US$100 for “incidental charges”. The third committee has met and prepared a tentative set of guidelines and set a procedure. Several proposals are at different stages of finalisation.
A number of joint projects with foreign universities are in hand. Examples are:

* MOU between the Centre for Biotechnology (CBT), JNU and the International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (ICGEB). ICGEB was set up by UNIDO in 1986 at New Delhi and at Trieste, Italy. The New Delhi Centre is located in the JNU campus. ICGEB will select 6-8 doctoral students from developing countries for admission to the ongoing doctoral programme of JNU. ICGEB researchers will also teach at CBT. The facilities of CBT and ICGEB will be mutually available to faculty and researchers. The students will be awarded JNU degrees. UNIDO will pay annually US$3000 per student inclusive of all costs, including accommodation. The funds raised will be used for improving infrastructural facilities of CBT and for the development of student facilities instead of being merged with the grant of the university.

* India and Italy have decided to set up a joint research council for the promotion of research in humanities, social sciences and sciences. The Indian secretariat is located at JNU. The proposal is with the MHRD for administrative clearance after which the academic programme will be chalked out.

* The Centre for German Studies (CGS), School of Languages, JNU is starting a joint project with University of Helle, Germany on the history of German missionaries in India during the 16th and 17th centuries consisting of retrieval and editing of documents and microfilming. Since 1971, the CGS has had an ongoing arrangement to send a doctoral student for 6 months to a German University as part of Indo-German CEP.

University Policy and Management

The University’s interest in international cooperation is a mix of academic and cultural interests. While the academic interests are pre-eminent, cultural interests are also crucial. Financial considerations, though important in general, are likely to be significant in charging a higher fee to self-financing foreign students, Exchange programmes and joint research projects are not viewed as a financial resource.

International activities do not make a profit and continue to be subsidised. The only source of funding has been the tuition fee introduced from this semester. The decision has been to merge (except CBT) this very small resource in the general grant of the university. The hostel and other facilities are still available at a subsidised rate.
JNU faculty members are eligible for study leave which they may spend overseas. Overseas faculty, on the other hand, are given facilities such as to-and-fro travel; a monthly stipend and accommodation in the West house.

So far as priorities are concerned, inter-school and interdisciplinary projects are likely to be given preference. Students from developing/neighbouring/friendly countries are likely to continue to get a fee subsidy, though not equal to the Indian students. Otherwise, all activities are receiving equal attention.

The Vice-Chancellor is interested in international matters and constituted the three committees mentioned above. There is no separate officer/office for international collaboration but the university has proposed the creation of a post of Assistant Registrar (International Cooperation).

The departments and centres have to obtain clearance for projects/MOUs from the academic bodies of the University. Access to facilities for international communication such as fax and E-Mail, although available, vary across centres/schools and are very limited.

University resources, though limited, are available for visiting professors and for supplementing some international activities e.g. participation of faculty in international conferences or to students/faculty for fieldwork abroad. The university funds for international purposes are so assigned by the UGC. The centres/departments are not free to fund any activity because there is no separate budget at the centre level. Student admissions are at the university level and all other funds are received by the university.
Notes From The Text

1. Central universities receive full grants from the central (federal) government through the University Grants Commission while some state universities receive partial grants from the central government.

2. The other important distinction is between affiliating and unitary universities. In an affiliating university, postgraduate teaching and research takes place in the university departments while undergraduate teaching is done in colleges which are ‘affiliated’ to the universities. However, the syllabus for the colleges is laid down and the examinations are conducted by the university. Other academic matters such as who should be admitted, the range of their academic attainments, what subjects to introduce, etc., are also decided for all colleges at the university level. The largest number of universities in India are the affiliating and teaching type. A unitary university does not have any affiliated colleges. Teaching takes place at the university departments. Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU), is an unitary university, where only post-graduate teaching and research is done, except in the School of Languages where undergraduate courses are provided in some foreign languages.

3. The others are All India Institutes of Medical Sciences at New Delhi and Chandigarh, Indian Statistical Institute, etc. Several research institutes have been set up outside the university orbit such as the Indian Institute of Public administration (New Delhi) and the National Institute of Design (New Delhi), etc. There are about 40 laboratories under the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR). The significance of these developments is that substantial scholarly and scientific research is done outside the universities.

4. The UGC is the overall body to monitor the universities while the All India Council for Technical Education oversees technical institutions and grants them recognition for purposes of granting degrees.

5. It is also to be noted that five universities are exclusively for women. Of the 8,210 colleges, an estimated 1070 are women’s colleges.

6. In some universities, the quality of teaching is excellent and good research work is done, library and laboratory facilities are adequate, examinations are held and results are declared on time. Some universities, on the other hand, are often closed for months, classes are not held, teachers are not paid and examinations are held a year or two behind schedule.
7. The word “scholarship” is being used to denote fellowship as well. Under the Commonwealth Scholarships and Fellowships Plan (CSPF), 75 scholarships and fellowships are offered every year to students from Commonwealth countries, the most offered by a developing country within the scheme. Not all of these are fully utilised. In 1990/91, 47 nominations were received; 24 admissions were arranged of whom 15 joined, 4 of whom at Delhi University. All of them were women who came for post-graduate work. In 1991/92, 62 nominations were received, 35 admissions were arranged of whom only 10 joined. Of these, 3 male students (one each from Kenya, Guyana and Mauritius) enrolled for B.A. (Economics), Ph.D. (Chemistry) and M.A. (Economics) respectively at Delhi University.

8. According to 1988-89 data, a majority (1,021) of students in medicine and pharmacy (out of 1,064) are registered in universities located in Karnataka state. It may be noted that several private medical colleges affiliated to universities in the Karnataka state charge ‘cavitation fees’. Therefore, it is presumed (in the absence of more reliable information) that most of these are self-financing students. Of the 334 engineering students (barring those in the Indian Institute of Technology and Roorkee University), 121 are in universities in Karnataka state. (Chanana Ahmad and Basu, 1992).

9. The Manipal group of institutions in Karnataka is one such example. It attracts the maximum number of medical students. The trust runs management, medical and engineering colleges. It has also set up professional colleges in Nepal and in Latin America. It has collaborative arrangements with West Indies and Malaysia.

10. Another similar scheme brings every year 12-15 undergraduate students from the nine campuses of the University of California to four colleges of general education of Delhi University. This is the Education Abroad Program (EAP) of the University of California. Selected undergraduate students have to earn 36 credits which are added to their total credit requirements in the U.S. They either attend regular courses or specially designed courses, such as Indian society and culture. The scheme is fully funded by the University of California.

11. These include scholarships awarded by the Indian Government, the Commonwealth Scholarships, those which come under the bilateral/multilateral CEPs, and scholarships offered by foreign countries (e.g., 34 from Australia). So far about 600 Indian students have been sent abroad in 20 years with the support of the Government of India. Of these, approximately 500 have returned. Women students are given preference for Commonwealth Scholarships. The
Australian government has reserved 50 percent of its scholarships for women; if 10 nominations of women are sent and 10 are selected, only 10 men will get selected. While this condition is favorable to women, the age limit is a handicap for them.

12. Some countries and universities have set up very aggressive media campaigns and are holding ‘educational fairs’ where representatives of several universities come together at a venue to give relevant information/assistance for admission. The notable countries are USA, UK, Australia and Canada. Agencies such as the British Council and USEFI are facilitating this activity. The Australian Government has set up an Australian International Education Foundation (AIEF) with an officer of the rank of Deputy High Commissioner to look after this. Besides these agencies, foreign universities have hired private agents who charge commission from the student and the university. The governments of the receiving countries are actively supporting their universities in this process of raising funds on the basis of the international recognition/reputation of their degrees/academic programmes.

13. MHRD is also involved in giving clearance to applications of foreign faculty/research scholars/graduate students for fieldwork and to Indian scholars and students for travel abroad. It arranges their placement in various universities. In this process, the UGC is also consulted and clearance is sought from it. The Ministry along with UGC also takes care of memoranda of understanding signed by Indian universities with universities/institutions abroad.

14. The ICCR, which is under the Ministry of External Affairs (MEA), has one of its aims to promote exchange of scholars and artists in performing and related arts. This role has been extended to support academic activities such as inter-country seminars and symposia, to provide financial support to faculty for travel abroad and to bring in reputed academics/artists to India. For general education, ICCR directly allocates scholarships to selected students. ICCR processes only those applications which are sent through Indian missions abroad and forwarded by the government of the sending country.

15. Funds for all these activities are provided to universities for all foreign students, regardless of whether they are sponsored or self-financing. However, budgetary allocations are very limited.

16. In 1993-94, 7 teachers of German, 6 of French, 3 each of Spanish and Chinese, 2 each of Serbo-Croat, Bulgarian, Mongolian and Hungarian and 1 each of Polish, Korean, Portuguese, Slovak and Romanian, were assigned to universities in India.
17. There is wide consensus that tests in English (like TOEFL) should be conducted at the entry point. Some Indian missions conduct these tests for sponsored students, but it is not a uniform practice. Pune University has introduced an entrance test in English.

18. Some foreign students at JNU mentioned they came to the university either because they had come in contact with a JNU faculty member in their country of origin or because they were familiar with the published work of some faculty members. Besides, DU and JNU were on the approved list of their countries. Thus, the academic exchange programmes have several implications and ramifications.

19. ICCR is trying to raise its budget in order to pay the high tuition/registration fee for the sponsored candidates to the universities. It is faced with a piquant situation. While its budgetary allocation for subsidizing the tuition fee of foreign students is based on the old fee structure, suddenly universities have sent demands for high fees. The ICCR is appealing to the universities for time, while asking for increased funds from the Government. However, some institutions, especially private professional colleges, have said that if the ICSSR cannot pay the increased tuition fee it should not send any nominations.

20. For instance, UNICEF, CIDA, SIDA, UNFPA, etc. are playing a crucial role in utilising the expertise among the faculty members for projects in India and abroad as well as by making funds available for research on grass root level issues/problems, typically Indian or specific to developing societies or common to developing and developed societies.

21. The JNU students referred to the experiences of their teachers, at whose instance they had come. They noted that the preoccupation of Indian students with public examinations for the All India Administrative Services had diluted the teaching programme. They stated that they were willing to work, but neither the students nor the teachers were interested.

22. Some centres, such as the Zakir Hussain Centre for Educational Studies and the Centre for the Study of Regional Development, both in the School of Social Sciences, have an inbuilt interdisciplinary character since the faculty are appointed from various disciplines and their teaching programme is also interdisciplinary.

23. Admissions to B. A., M. A., M. SC. and MCA are on the basis of written tests, and candidates for admission to the School of Languages in all the foreign languages (barring English and Linguistics) are
selected on the basis of written tests and viva-vote. Admissions to M. Phil/M.Tech./MCH are on the basis of written tests and interview. Admission to the direct Ph. D programme is on the basis of interviews only.

24. The pattern and schedule of sessional work is made known to the students at the commencement of each semester. The method of internal evaluation varies from course to course and consists of mid-term tests, field work, practical work, term papers, lectures, book reviews and seminars. A student is required to secure a minimum cumulative grade point to become eligible for award of a degree.

25. The proposals fall into four categories depending on who initiates them. For example, a faculty member goes abroad and brings a letter from the host department/university; the Vice Chancellor brings proposals from foreign conferences/meetings; others may be parts of CEPs which are easy to handle because they are inter-governmental and no financial commitment is required from the JNU; and those which come from foreign universities because they are familiar with JNU either through ex-students or faculty members.
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Introduction

International collaboration between Malaysian and foreign universities has involved various forms of assistance, sharing and exchange among academic staff, students and administrators. Opportunities for collaborative efforts have been provided for academic staff in the way of curricular consultations, staff development programmes, study leaves, sabbaticals, international meetings and conferences, visiting fellowships, and joint research projects and publications. The movement of Malaysian academic staff in these collaborative efforts tends to be from South to North, with a higher proportion of academicians moving to universities in the industrialised countries of Britain, United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand than those in the developing countries of the South. This preference of Malaysian academicians for universities in the industrial countries of the North may be due, in part, to familiarity with an education system of which they had formerly been undergraduates or postgraduates, fluency in English, the lingua franca, financial incentives given in the form of visiting fellowships, technological know-how, and availability of library resources and research facilities.

On the part of students, international collaboration has taken mainly the form of provision of places for Malaysian undergraduates and postgraduates in foreign universities, especially those in the North. Malaysia, a sending rather than a host country, had about 52,000 students in overseas educational institutions in 1990. This is a very substantial number, compared with a mere 466 foreign students which constitute only 0.8 per cent of the university population in Malaysia for the same year (Leong 1992). Other minor provisions of international collaboration are student exchange and study abroad schemes for Malaysians.

Comparatively, administrative staff within the management and professional service categories tend to receive low priorities in the provision of opportunities to participate in international collaborative programmes or schemes. Members of the administrative staff no longer enjoy the privilege of sabbatical leave. Although administrative staff are eligible for study leave, the number of applicants involved is few and far between.

The successful implementation of international collaborative programmes and schemes requires the cooperation of both academicians and administrators. While the formulation, monitoring and evaluation of collaborative efforts are primarily the responsibilities of academicians, their work can be facilitated by a supporting staff that is experienced in international linkages.

In the course of collecting data for this study, opinions given by both academicians and administrators have emphasised the need for education and
training programmes tailored specifically to enhance professionalism in international collaborative programmes and schemes. A majority of the academicians and administrators involved relied on ‘on the job’ training and their performance may be satisfactory in meeting the present demands on international collaborative efforts. However, the impending changes in the higher education environment with the proposed corporatisation of Malaysian universities, beginning with the University of Malaya (UM) on 1 July 1996 (New Straits Times 5 May 1995), the increasing competition for staff and students from the private higher education sector and the Government’s intention of establishing Malaysia as a centre of educational excellence, will have far-reaching effects on international collaborative efforts at the tertiary level. Thus, the need for education and training programmes on the part of academicians and administrators to enhance their effectiveness, efficiency and productivity at work becomes more acute.

In this chapter, the role of the Government in university education and international collaboration is discussed. An overview of international collaboration in Malaysian universities follows, which discusses (a) university objectives (b) kinds of collaboration (c) facets of successful and unsuccessful collaborative programmes and schemes (d) financing of international collaboration and (e) organisation of international collaboration. The chapter ends with a case study of an institution, namely the University of Malaya (UM). Emerging problems and lessons learnt in the context of experiences of Malaysian universities in international collaboration are highlighted.

The Role of the Government

In Malaysia, the Government plays a significant role in the development and policy formulation of university education. Its role is defined by the Universities and University Colleges Act 1971. Under the Act, the Ministry of Education was made responsible for the general direction of university education and the administration of the Act itself. The Act provided for the establishment, maintenance and administration of universities and university colleges, and for other related matters including student organisations and activities. Furthermore, government control was enhanced by the 1975 Amendment to the Act when additional heads of government departments or their representatives were appointed to serve as council members of universities. This provision enabled the government to ensure that universities conformed to national policies (Selvaratnam, 1989: Leong and Chew, 1995). Furthermore, government control of universities was matched by pervasive intervention in terms of educational finance. Through financial grants and allocations, the government provided over 90 per cent of the expenditure of local universities. As a result, government control of universities was complete.

Since independence in 1957, university education has been considered to be a major vehicle for nation-building and national development. As reflected
in the various five-year development plans, university education is viewed as one of the principal instruments for promoting national integration among Malaysia’s multi-ethnic population. University education is also the primary agency for the development of human resources to meet national manpower needs, particularly in science and technology. Skilled manpower is necessary for the success of national development strategies. Given the intensification of the deliberate use of universities for national development purposes, the argument for internationalisation of university learning became less impressive in the 1960s and 1970s.

Over the 1980s, the imposition of full-cost fees for foreign students by post-industrialised countries of the Commonwealth prompted the government to consider other avenues for meeting the increasing demand for higher education among Malaysians. This consideration on the part of the Malaysian Government has led to developments in higher education which, directly or indirectly, would have had an impact on the flow of Malaysian students to universities overseas. Some of these developments are:

* of the main Commonwealth senders of students to the United States in 1984 (Coyne 1992), Malaysia registered the highest proportion of 18.5 per cent as compared to Hong Kong (8.6 per cent) and Singapore (3.2 per cent),

* of the major East and South-East Asia senders of students to the Commonwealth countries of Australia, Britain and Canada between 1988 and 1990, Malaysia registered the lowest percentage increase (12.4) as compared with Hong Kong (29.3) and Singapore (41.0).

* Malaysians are encouraged to attain fluency in foreign languages such as Japanese, Mandarin, Korean, German and French so that they would be eligible to apply for places in universities other than those which are located in countries where the lingua franca is English.

The rising cost of overseas tertiary education and the upsurge in demand for higher education, perceived as the key to jobs which paid good salaries, conferred social status and provided social mobility, led to the expansion and provision of various forms of higher education programmes by the private sector. Apart from local certificate and diploma programmes, various forms of degree programmes such as the twinning programme, credit transfer programme and link-up programme were organised in conjunction with foreign universities from the English-speaking Western countries. The enrolment of students in these institutions at the degree, diploma and certificate levels had more than doubled between 1985 and 1990, increasing from about 15,000 students in 1985 to about 35,600 students in 1990. Of the total enrolment in 1990, 14 per cent were registered for degree courses, 46 per cent for diploma programmes and the remaining 40 per cent for certificate courses. The courses offered by these institutions were mainly in the fields of accounting, commerce, law, engineering and electronics, computer science
and business management - subjects with a strong vocational appeal to students. Apart from Malaysians, the private colleges enrolled a total of 248 foreign students in 1995 (a figure provided by the Immigration Department of Malaysia to the Higher Education Unit of the Ministry of Education).

While the Government encouraged the development of university education by the private sector, it adopted the idea of corporatisation for the local universities. It has been announced by the Minister of Education that UM will be the first of the institutions of higher learning to corporate. As indicated in a working paper presented in a workshop (Abdullah Sanusi Ahmad 1995), the objectives of corporatising UM are to (a) increase its performance in the provision of higher education (b) improve effectiveness and efficiency in the management of the university through the optimum utilisation of its physical, human and intellectual resources (c) relieve the Government of some of its financial and administrative burden (d) contribute to the National Development Policy targets, particularly in the area of manpower requirements and (e) serve as a learning and cultural centre for the community. When corporatised as a statutory body, the management of UM will be more flexible and it will be able to form subsidiary companies to administer various functions which include administrative operations, services and the management of endowments.

Apart from the local universities and private colleges, multinational corporations have been encouraged to participate in the development of university education, especially in the areas of science and technology, to meet the demand for technicians and engineers. Thus Petronas, an oil company, will take over the branch campus of the University of Science Malaysia (USM) in 1996. It will be accorded university status and be known as the Petronas Institute of Technology. Likewise, Telekom Malaysia has started diploma courses at the Institute of Telecommunications and Information Technology while Tenaga Nasional Berhad (the National Power Company) will upgrade its Institute of Engineering Technology to that of an institute of higher learning (New Sunday Times 19 October 1995). Presently, the Institute of Engineering Technology has a twinning programme (Bachelor degree) with the University of Otago, New Zealand and a part-time business administration programme (Masters degree) with UM.

To promote further the democratisation of higher education, all local universities will introduce distance learning programmes, beginning in July 1996. There are also discussions about the setting up of branch campuses of foreign universities, and countries which have expressed an interest are Britain and Japan. A borderless university offering postgraduate degrees via satellite network has been launched by NTU International, a company formed between its subsidiary Sesama-NTUI and Company, and the National Technological University (NTU), Fort Collins, Colorado.

The rapid expansion of higher educational institutions in Malaysia has made tertiary education more accessible to those who wish to pursue it.
Furthermore, this expansion has contributed to the Government’s objective of developing Malaysia into a regional centre of educational excellence. Towards this end, Malaysia has recommended three of its institutions, namely, UM (business), Institute Aminuddin Baki (education) and the National Institute of Public Administration (public administration) to the Group of 15 (G15) countries in Argentina in November 1995. Datuk Dr. Fong Chan Onn, the Deputy Minister of Education, has emphasised that: “There are many educational institutions in the South of equal worth and capacity to those in the North. It is a matter of identifying them to be utilised as cheaper educational facilities for developing countries” (The Star 26 October 1995).

Major developments which led to the internationalisation of learning, the use of English as a medium of instruction and the introduction of multi-media in the dissemination of knowledge in the private higher education sector will have an impact on the flow of students to and from Malaysia. Reflecting the views of the Malaysian government, Datuk Dr. Fong has said “We want to develop education as a significant industry...Eventually we want to internationalise it, make it an export industry”. (Jayasankaran 1995, p.44).

Overall, government measures in the higher education sector are likely to reduce the flow of Malaysian students to the North and increase the flow of foreign students to Malaysia, more in the context of South-South than North-South collaboration.

International Collaboration: University Objectives

One of the mission objectives of Malaysian universities is to foster and maintain international linkages. Thus, the newly established University of Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS) in its Annual Report 1993/94 emphasises the need to “establish close linkages with government, the local community and industry and with other academic institutions, both national and international”.

To the University of Agriculture Malaysia (UPM), international collaboration facilitates joint academic and staff development programmes, collaborative research, short visits, marketing of relevant academic programmes to other nations and inflow of foreign students, especially at the postgraduate levels. USM has been making concerted efforts to promote collaborative programmes with a number of overseas universities and to seek assistance from international agencies to support new academic initiatives, as indicated in its Master Plan for Academic Development (1983-1990). In international collaboration, USM subscribes to the principle that efforts should not be confined only to developed countries but also to ASEAN nations to strengthen regional solidarity.

Whilst the basic objectives in developing overseas links will remain valid, universities are in the process of formulating new policies or prioritizing existing activities in response to the “undercurrents of change” affecting the higher education scenario between 1995 and 2000. USM, for example, intends to:
* offer postgraduate programmes, including modular short courses based on specialist themes, in partnership with selected overseas universities wherein “economic costs” will be charged. (Income generating activity).

* promote opportunities under the non-graduating programme to students from other local and foreign institutions, individuals from industry and family members of working expatriates to acquire additional qualification or enhance knowledge/language skills. (Income generating and service to the community in support of personal advancement).

* approach international agencies, where appropriate, to obtain advisory assistance to develop new areas of thrust, especially those involving high-technology inputs in which Malaysia has limited experience or exposure e.g. aerospace and satellite technology. (Recognizing the continuing need for foreign assistance to develop specific niche areas).

* identify opportunities for staff development and short-term attachment training in specific fields in the spirit of MOUs entered into with overseas universities. (Keeping abreast with new and fast changing technology).

* invite Visiting Professors to work with their counterparts in Penang or any of the branch campuses. (Academic enrichment/diverse inputs from abroad).

* intensify efforts to collaborate on joint research activities and promote staff exchange with universities in the S.E. Asian region, especially those in North Sumatra and South Thailand. (As a responsible public sector organisation, USM will implement the Government’s policy of promoting regional cooperation, the Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand growth triangle (IMT-GT)).

* involve the student community: expand study abroad opportunities. (Translating USM’s policy on internationalisation into affirmative action - an activity involving its students going overseas for a semester to broaden their scope of learning and, in reciprocity, receiving students from link institutions whose presence and diversity of cultures will add an international flavour to campus life).

* pursue any other activity which USM considers expedient in view of the impending move to corporatise.

It is observed that the objectives of international collaborative efforts are focused, in the main, on institutional and staff development, and academic and economic benefits. Social and cultural gains derived from collaborative efforts are given relatively less attention.
Types of International Collaboration

This section focuses on two of the schemes that promote the flow of students from abroad to Malaysian universities. These two schemes are largely effected through cultural and bilateral negotiations and subsequent agreements between individual developed and developing countries and Malaysia. These bilateral schemes are further enhanced by additional scholarships, awards and fellowships granted by various international and regional agencies. Academic exchange schemes are also negotiated between individual universities in Malaysia and overseas institutions of higher learning.

The first student exchange scheme discussed is the Malaysian Technical Cooperation Programme (MTCP). Malaysia provides technical assistance to developing countries under the MTCP. Its emphasis is on the development of human resources through training and the sharing of Malaysian experience and expertise in the development process. Between 1986 and 1990, technical assistance has been given to 46 countries and the amount disbursed is RM29 million.

In emphasizing human resource development, MTCP makes available to applicants both undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Malaysian universities. At the undergraduate level, a majority of the candidates are sent to the International Islamic University. The emphasis, however, is on postgraduate studies involving masters and doctorate courses. By the end of 1988, 1,318 trainees were awarded fellowships to undertake academic and practical training in local universities and training institutions. A total of 5 universities and seventeen public agencies and training institutions were involved in the programme.

All tuition fees are paid for under the MTCP programme. The MTCP is generous in its sponsorship of foreign undergraduate and postgraduate students from developing countries to Malaysian universities. Candidates are given living allowances and allowances for textbooks, thesis, practical training and travel at the beginning and the end of the course, and also within Malaysia. A family allowance may be given to participants who are permitted to bring in their families. Expenses for medical and dental treatment in government hospitals and clinics are borne by the Malaysian Government. Payment of allowances is made by the Public Services Department through the training institutions concerned.

The period of sponsorship is for the duration of the course which varies from 2 to 3 years. Some of the areas of study offered to meet the development needs of receiving countries are economics, public administration, business administration, law, agriculture and applied science. The continuation of awards is based on satisfactory progress made by the candidates. The candidates are required to return to their home countries on completion of their studies.

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With regard to the second student exchange scheme discussed, a large majority of the foreign students at the University of Agriculture (UPM) are from the ASIAN countries and Africa. Almost 90 per cent of the foreign postgraduate students are recipients of scholarships from the government or agencies such as WINROCK International, Southeast Asian Regional Centre for Graduate Study and Research in Agriculture, International Centre for Living Aquatic Resources Management, International Development Research Centre, United States Agency for International Development, Japan International Cooperation Agency and the MTCP.

In an effort to foster linkages with other academic institutions, UPM has established co-operative graduate programmes. Under such an arrangement, joint graduate programmes between the University and other institutions, local or foreign, can be structured for graduate students. Students may carry out part of the graduate work at the collaborating university and complete the degree requirements at the University or vice-versa. The degree will be awarded by the institution which initiated the programme. An example of a co-operative graduate scheme is the operation of a consortium of universities made up of UPM, Kasertsart University in Thailand, Institute of Bogor, Indonesia, Institute of Technology, Bandung, and University of Philippines at Los Banos. Under this scheme, a postgraduate student can follow courses in Kasertsart University and carry out research at UPM. The Deans of the graduate schools involved meet once a year to evaluate the co-operative graduate programme.

In staff exchange schemes, USM has succeeded in formalizing many bilateral links with overseas universities, particularly those with similar academic objectives and programmes. No less than 70 foreign universities from the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, America, Japan and ASEAN have signed memoranda of understanding (MOUs) with USM, many of which are backed by funding from international agencies.

Factors in Success

Based on the responses of UPM, the academic staff training programme is considered to be the most successful of the international collaborative schemes. The scheme provides staff members with full-paid leave and scholarships, including allowances for family members, to pursue postgraduate studies overseas. On completion of their studies, staff members are re-employed by the university concerned. UPM does not have any unsuccessful collaborative programmes.

USM considers the British Council sponsored Committee for International Cooperation in Higher Education (CICHE) programme to be the most successful of the collaborative schemes. Each of the CICHE programmes has specific objectives, schedule of activities, performance criteria, periodic reviews and final outcomes. Basically, CICHE is a short term visitation programme which is funded jointly by the British Council and USM. The
British Council mechanism paves the way for cooperation with British institutions where, to date, USM has been able to source consultants without having to pay equivalent salary offset costs for the duration of their stay in Penang. USM is only responsible for the disbursement of local accommodation and subsistence allowances with British Council meeting travel expenses. Conversely, when USM staff members visit their counterpart in British universities, no fees are levied by these institutions. In this context, CICHE is perceived as a most cost-effective activity which has promoted successfully bilateral cooperation between USM and British universities.

As an example, the Engineering Advisory Panel comprises consultants of international standing who are selected from various British universities. Over three phases of their work, the Panel is associated with the following achievements:

* USM has a fully functioning engineering branch campus in Seri Iskandar, Perak.

* The Panel continues to be involved in the development of all 5 engineering schools located in Perak. A total of nine hundred engineering students have graduated up to August 1995.

* Panel members conduct staff development programmes during their annual visits and thus assist staff in keeping abreast with changing technology.

* Advice is given by the Panel members on aspects of staff training and a number of trainees have been placed in selected British universities, usually from where the members themselves are located, to undertake postgraduate studies.

* The Panel exercises a multiplier effect, given that it has been the pivotal factor in enabling USM to obtain assistance from the Overseas Development Administration which supported seventeen research cells connected with various engineering disciplines.

Collaborative schemes with Belgium and Germany have been considered by USM to be the least successful in achieving their objectives. The reason given is a lack of financial support from the sponsors.

Finance

As the system of education in Malaysia expanded, so has educational expenditure increased. For the period 1960-90 educational expenditure as a percentage of public expenditure varied between 13.2% and 19.1%. However, total educational expenditure as a percentage of Gross National Product increased from 3.1% in 1960 to 5.9% in 1990.
At the tertiary level, the emphasis on university education is clear. Expenditure on university education rose from RM33.6 million in 1970 to RM954.4 million in 1990, registering almost a thirty-fold increase. Allocations to universities as a proportion of total educational expenditure increased from 7.1% in 1970 to 15.8% in 1990. The total cost per student increased from RM3,953 in 1970 to RM16,375 in 1990 at the university level (Leong and Chew 1995).

It has been observed that a separate allocation has not always been given specifically to international collaborative efforts *per se* as in the case of UM. Instead, income generated from and expenditure incurred by international collaborative efforts have been entered under general headings such as 'student fees' or 'staff training' in the university budget. However, both UPM and USM have allocated funds for international collaborative efforts. The allocations are provided from the central funds of the universities. Collaborative programmes and schemes have yet to be self-financing. Income earned, from fees or research projects, has to be surrendered to the central funds of the universities for reallocation.

In the long term, however, it is expected that international collaborative efforts will be self-financing. When university grants are reduced by the Government with corporatisation, university authorizes are likely to use international collaborative programmes and schemes to generate university income.

**Management of International Collaboration**

In universities where there is no specific unit to look after international collaborative efforts, the workload tends to be decentralised to various sections of the Registrar's Office. As in the case of UM, applications from foreign students are passed on to the Admissions and Records Office, while visiting professors from overseas are taken care of by the Human Resource Department. Over and above the Deputy Registrars in charge of each of these two departments is the University Registrar and the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academic).

In a university where a budget has been allocated specifically for international collaborative work *per se*, administration is more centralised. At USM, there is an International Relations Unit under the Chief Assistant Registrar which has direct access to the Vice-Chancellor, from whom it receives policy directions, even though it is located organisationally within the Academic Division under the Registrar and the Deputy Vice-Chancellor for Academic Affairs.

The need has been expressed for training for administrative officers in areas related to their work with foreign institutions of higher learning. Some of the areas suggested relate to the knowledge and practice of negotiation skills, the
legal aspects of collaborative work, educational systems of the countries involved in the international linkages, and student counseling.

Issues

Some of the principal issues raised by this study of Malaysian universities are:

* There is scope for greater collaboration between universities in Malaysia and their counterparts in the region. Institutions of higher learning within ASEAN and the Pacific Rim are likely to share common academic pursuits and interests such as tropical medicine, environmental studies and marine biology. Interaction through collaborative efforts will add to mutual strength and *inter alia* contribute towards regional solidarity.

* Greater effort is required to stimulate international collaborative efforts on a South-South basis. Although the South-North flow will remain, the South-South flow can be enhanced through active participation in organisations such as the Commonwealth Universities Studies Abroad Consortium or the Group of 15.

* The establishment of a centre or unit to co-ordinate international collaborative efforts between the various departments or faculties of a university will help to shape policies and strategies, and maximise the use of resources in developing overseas links. There is a need to ‘get the act together’.

* In collaborative research, some of the constraints experienced are a shortage of funds, lack of commitment and inadequate communication. Thus the formula for successful collaboration seems to be adequate funding, mutual partnership and respect, and accountability.

* The involvement of the student community in collaborative schemes can be enhanced. With the possible use of English in the teaching of science and technological disciplines in institutions of higher learning, and in private colleges, the issue of Malay as the medium of instruction may be minimised for foreign students. At the same time, study abroad opportunities for Malaysian students will broaden their learning horizons and experiences.

* To facilitate student exchange and study abroad schemes, issues such as funding, language and sponsorship need to be resolved. Furthermore, information to assist in the conversion of grades and their equivalents to the Malaysian system of education will minimise delays in processing of applications.

* Support structures and services constitute yet another concern for foreign students. Prompt responses to a student’s application, and
minimum ‘red-tape’ at the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Home Affairs and the Immigration Department are likely to enhance student flows into the country. Appropriate and adequate support services relate to accommodation, and guidance and counseling sessions.

* Lack of information about local and foreign institutions of higher learning has been a constraint in international collaboration efforts. Information should be made available in print form or through the electronic media.

* With the proliferation of private colleges offering higher education qualifications jointly with institutions overseas, the encouragement of the private sector to establish private universities or branch campuses of foreign universities in Malaysia, and the introduction of distance learning programmes, the issues of massification and commodification of education, and accountability to consumers loom large. There is the need for accreditation boards to ensure that educational standards are maintained. The need to achieve external efficiency must also be borne in mind. Unless the graduates are employable and productive, the output from such systems is wasted.

* International collaborative efforts require specific skills on the part of their administrators. There is a need for the education and training of personnel involved in international collaboration.

Conclusion

International collaboration has played an important role in the development of universities in Malaysia. The focus of international collaborative efforts has been mainly on curriculum planning, staff training and joint research. International collaborative efforts for students such as student exchange and study abroad schemes have yet to take off substantially in the Malaysian context. With the changing environment in higher education brought about by an increase in educational opportunities, the participation of the private sector and the proposed corporatisation of universities in Malaysia, international collaboration is likely to be pursued more vigorously. One is hopeful that the internationalisation of higher education through collaborative efforts will be undertaken in future not only for income generation purposes but also for the creation and dissemination of knowledge, and social and cultural development. The outcome of international collaboration should be a win-win situation and not a win-lose situation for the parties concerned.
CASE STUDY OF A MALAYSIAN UNIVERSITY: UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA

Corporate Mission

The corporate mission of UM is to become a premier university, seeking excellence in the development and dissemination of knowledge (University of Malaya 1994). This mission is to be achieved by being in the forefront of knowledge, producing high quality graduates, contributing towards national development, enhancing universal values, and creating an efficient and innovative management.

In assuming the post of Vice-Chancellor in 1994, Dato Dr. Abdullah Sanusi Ahmad realised the need for change in fundamental areas in UM. A concept paper on corporatisation was prepared and a summary of directions of change was indicated (Abdullah Sanusi Ahmad 1995).

The University would cease to depend almost entirely upon government grants for its operating budget, but instead be funded by student sponsorship from government and other agencies, by fees from private and foreign students, and by other uses of its resources to generate income. It would be free to develop its assets, and would aim at becoming a regional centre of educational and research excellence; it would also develop from its campus base into a multi-media institution. International activities would have an important impact.

International Collaboration: Students

In the 1994/95 session there were 284 foreign students at UM: 2% of the total student body. Nearly half of these were postgraduates, and the remainder either undergraduates or “non-graduating students”. Most of the latter follow courses on the local campus for a period of time, as part fulfillment of the academic requirements for the conferment of a degree registered in their home countries. Examples are foreign medical students on attachment to the Faculty of Medicine as an elective course and overseas students following the Malay language courses at the Faculty of Language and Linguistics to improve their language skills. There are also a few non-graduating students who carry out fieldwork or undertake research in Malaysia to complete their postgraduate studies in universities overseas.

By discipline, practically all of the foreign undergraduates are in the social sciences and humanities. At the postgraduate level also, a higher proportion of foreign students is enrolled in social science and humanities (17%) than engineering (12%) or Islamic studies (8%).

Forty-six per cent of the foreign students are from developing countries such as Vietnam, Bangladesh and Iran. ASEAN countries provide 40 per cent and
the developed countries 13 per cent. Among the developed countries, Japan and Korea have the highest proportion.

Particularly interesting is the link scheme with the University of Hull in Britain, under which 14 Hull students have been enrolled in UM as non-graduating students at the undergraduate level in the 1994/95 session. Specifically, the link, established in 1989, is between the Centre for South-East Asian Studies at the University of Hull and the Department of South East Asian studies of the faculty of Arts and Social Sciences and the Department of Malay Language of the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics at UM. The B.A. Special Degree in South-East Asian studies and language, conferred by the University of Hull, is a 3-year programme. Besides courses on South-East Asian history, politics, economics and culture, undergraduates are required to follow the course “Basic Malay” in their first year and “Malay Language” in their second year. At the end of the second year, the undergraduates spend a study year abroad in Malaysia to improve their Malay and gather materials for a written project.

A number of factors have contributed to the successful implementation of the link scheme. Firstly, the eligibility of undergraduates in the University of Hull for financial grants from the British Government minimises the costs of living abroad. Secondly, the undergraduates have considerable knowledge of the Malay language prior to their arrival in Malaysia, having followed classes in Malay for a two-year period in Hull. This knowledge is further enhanced in the proficiency Malay course organised by the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, UM. Here, the undergraduates from Hull attend Malay classes with the local students and class-size is kept to a maximum of 15 to allow for individual attention. Besides the lecture approach, the audio-laboratory teaching method is used. Efforts are also made to house the British undergraduates in residential halls where they can interact with the local students and be exposed to the Malaysian way of life. During the vacation, the undergraduates visit different parts of the country to observe how Malaysian society operates as well as to collect materials for their written projects.

Within this link scheme, an exchange programme involving academic staff members has been discussed. The focus is on collaborative research and writing projects between the two departments of South-East Asian studies. A general multidisciplinary teaching text on South-East Asia has been planned.

Another scheme links the Faculty of Medicine, UM, with overseas medical schools. The overseas medical curriculum, in general, provides for elective subjects from the fourth year of the course. One of these electives requires the medical student to undertake a project at a medical school overseas while on attachment for a period of 4 to 8 weeks. Although the undergraduates come from medical schools in countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, Germany and India, they are, in the main, Malaysian
students studying medicine overseas who have opted for an attachment back home to the Faculty of Medicine, UM.

A memorandum of understanding on an academic exchange programme between the Rouen Graduate School of Business and UM has been drawn up. UM will send undergraduate or postgraduate business students to the Rouen Graduate School of Business to undertake academic courses or carry out research projects supervised by the faculty there. To reciprocate, the Rouen Graduate School of Business will select and send postgraduate students to the Faculty of Economics and Administration to attend the Masters of Business Administration programme. Both parties will assess the performance of students and submit marks or grades for academic courses taken. The exchange student will pay tuition fees to the home institution only and the host institution will undertake to waive all fees. However, the cost of transportation, room and board during the period of stay at the host institution will be borne by the exchange students. Efforts will also be made to exchange faculty members between the two institutions. The terms of the exchange programme are to be reviewed at the end of three years. To date, 3 French postgraduate students are working on their projects in UM.

Foreign students are also at UM as part of a study or tour group. The duration of the visit may vary from a day to a week, depending on the objectives of the study tour. Normally, lectures or informal talks on Malaysia are organised to meet the needs and interests of the tour group. Countries which have sent their students to UM as members of a tour group are Japan, Korea, Singapore, Thailand and Australia.

Staff

Malaysians constitute a large majority of the academic staff of UM, about 94% in 1994/95. Of the 6% who are foreigners, 79% are lecturers and language teachers.

Sabbatical leave is granted to the teaching staff who can apply for it once every 3 years for 5 months leave or once every 5 years for 9 months leave. The sabbatical is approved when the proposed plan for academic work is agreed to by the Head of Department, the Dean and the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academic). Some of the staff, for academic, economic or personal reasons, prefer to spend their sabbatical in Malaysia. Of the 152 staff members who took their sabbatical leave in 1995, 44% chose to remain in Malaysia. The remaining 56% spent their sabbatical overseas. Of the latter, 15% were in Britain, 12.5% in the United States, 10.5% in Australia and 3% in Japan. There are international agencies who provide fellowships and scholarships to staff members for the duration of their sabbatical leave, among them the Association of Commonwealth Universities, the Malaysian-American Commission on Educational Exchange (MACEE) and the American Council of Learned Societies.
Staff training schemes are another form of international collaboration; UM provides a year for masters and 3 years for doctorate degrees overseas. Of the training approved in 1995, 73.5% of the staff pursued doctorate degrees; 18% masters degrees, 5% first degrees and 4% diplomas. As for the location of universities, almost two-thirds of them chose the United Kingdom, followed by the United States of America.

Visiting professors also add to internationalism. Invitations to visiting professors are justified on several grounds: shortage of staff, lack of expertise and experience in specialised fields of knowledge, training of staff, and research. UM has a limited number of positions for visiting professors and they can be used by various faculties to strengthen international collaboration. They are usually provided with furnished accommodation in university quarters and an office space, and may be funded by agencies such as MACEE. Individual grants obtained from the Ministry of Science, Technology and Environment can be used to bring short-term international consultants for specific research work.

Research

The university sets aside its own funds for research by staff and students, which it sees as an important activity (Thong 1995). Other sources of funds include agencies such as the World Bank, the Canadian International Development Research Centre (IDRC), and the European Community, as well as private organisations outside the university. The major source of funding for research and development projects, however, is the Ministry of Science, Technology and Environment.

A most successful collaborative research programme of the Institute of Advanced Studies, UM, was with the Technical University of Berlin. Two projects have been completed: the intercontinental testing of new genotypes of chickens (1973-79), and the development of a new breed of goat (Jermasia) through crossbreeding, selection and biotechnological methods (1980-1990). The goat breeding project has been commercialised with funds from the Malaysian Technology Development Cooperation. As part of the programme, 5 Malaysian Ph.D. theses, 5 German Ph.D. theses, 7 Malaysian MSc theses and 4 German diploma theses were completed. Success was due to (a) generous research funding from the German Research Council, German Scientific Cooperation and the European Community; (b) continuous exchange of staff and postgraduate students between the two universities, mainly funded by DAAD, and (c) mutual understanding and friendship between the joint project leaders.

Link Schemes

To date, UM has link schemes with at least eighteen local institutions and corporations and twenty four foreign universities. Of the latter, five are with ASEAN countries, three with Vietnam, one with India, five with Japan and
ten with developed countries in the West. Conditions of the link schemes are spelt out in MOUs, which facilitate the movement of teaching staff and students, and joint research between universities.

A successful example is the collaboration between UM and University of Goteborg, Sweden, which was initiated in July 1994. The research project of an innovative nature involved the study of inter-cultural linguistics in the context of the Malay and Swedish languages. Adequate finding allowed for exchange of visits, student seminars and the publication of a book on concepts of conflict and non-conflict in *Bahasa Malaysia* (the Malay language) and Swedish. Besides these successful outcomes over a period of three years, two of the research members in UM obtained their doctorate degrees based on the project.

Experience of successful linkages shows that the signing of an MOU is but the first step. Other steps towards success require adequate funding, realistic objectives, effective planning, efficient resource utilisation and committed and competent staff. Without these conditions for successful linkage between institutions, many MOUs may be signed but few will take off.

Priorities

As with the other Malaysian universities, priorities in collaborative activities depend on the objectives and needs of the university, which will vary from one developmental stage to another. In terms of target groups within the university population, the focus of collaborative efforts is on members of the academic staff. There is the continuous task of building up a core of academicians to meet the teaching, research and publication functions of a university. Thus staff training schemes, joint research projects, visiting professorships, appointment of external examiners, and attendance at international seminars and conferences constitute the focus of international collaborative efforts. However, collaborative programmes involving students, such as student exchange and study abroad schemes, and administrative staff have yet to take off substantially in numbers and effect.

Priorities in disciplines vary from one faculty to another. For example, no priority is given to any one discipline within the Faculty of Medicine, but emphasis is on allied health programmes, sports medicine, and development of specialised surgical skills (neurosurgery, plastics, oncology, transplantation surgery). On the other hand, the Institute of Advanced Studies has 6 thrust areas (environment and natural resources, biotechnology, health and medical sciences, technology and industrial development, human development and Malaysian land use) and thirteen priority areas (University of Malaya, Institute of Advanced Studies 1995).

An open policy is adopted by UM on preference between countries. However, the Vice-Chancellor has expressed the hope that collaboration on a regional basis with ASEAN and countries of the Pacific Rim will intensify
in effort. The universities in these two regions have the financial and human resources to collaborate for development purposes.

Financing of Collaborative Activities

Although the financing of collaborative activities is a responsibility of the university, it does not constitute an income or expenditure item on its own. In 1993, for example, university income totalling RM192.5 million or US$77 million was derived from government grants (83%), fees (8%), investments (8%) and other income (1%). Expenditure totalling RM161.7 million (US$64.7 million) was incurred for wages and salaries (78%), other recurrent expenditure (12%), administration and teaching (8%), research and equipment (1%), depreciation (0.5%) and student affairs (0.3%).

No funds were allocated specifically for international collaboration, though the University does provide funds for staff training, sabbatical leave and attendance at courses, and conferences and seminars overseas. For accounting purposes, these collaborative activities are subsumed under items such as teaching and research. Although international collaborative efforts are expected to be self-funding at the department or faculty level, yet this has not been pursued seriously, since other funds have been available, mainly from government sources.

Organisation and Management

There is at present no one unit in the organisational structure which specifically manages international collaborative work. Overall, the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academic) is responsible for collaborative efforts related to academic programmes. He is assisted in academic and administrative matters by the Registrar and his deputys. At the department or faculty level, international collaboration is the responsibility of the heads of departments and the administrative team in the Dean’s and the Deputy Dean’s offices.

A consultant has recently been appointed to restructure the administration of the university so that it will be more proactive to changing needs. In addition, there is the Consultancy Unit of UM (UPUM) and the Executive Development Centre, which has been placed under the Human Resource Development Division. One of the objectives of the Executive Development Centre is to cooperate with international institutions of higher learning and local government training institutes in areas of mutual interest on executive development world-wide. It has also been proposed that an International Relations Unit be established but its location has yet to be determined.

Both the academic and administrative staff involved in international collaborative efforts have yet to be trained in a specialised job of this nature. Some of the training needs expressed are in the areas of communication and
negotiation skills, financial accounting, monitoring and evaluation techniques, educational systems other than the British model, networking and protocol.
References (Chapter 5)


Context and History

This chapter is based on a study of eight universities in three East African countries: Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, with a more detailed case study of Egerton University in Kenya.

The history of higher education in East Africa goes back to the days of Makerere College, Uganda, which was the only institution of higher learning in existence in the region before 1956. At that time, the college was offering external degrees of the University of London to students from the then British territories in East and Central Africa. The Royal Technical College, Nairobi, the forerunner of the present University of Nairobi, admitted its pioneering students in 1956 and the University College, Dar es Salaam, was established a little later. The three colleges became the University of East Africa in 1963, offering degrees of this new institution and sharing training facilities for such expensive programmes as medicine, engineering and law. These degree programmes were mounted respectively at Makerere, Nairobi and Dar es Salaam. However, due to growing nationalism in the three countries, each college became an independent university in 1970, catering mostly to national needs but inevitably resulting in the duplication of more degree programmes. Some collaboration, nevertheless, continued.

Thus, international cooperation between the East African institutions of higher education is deep-rooted and continues to thrive, long after the break up of the East African Community in 1977. Indeed, the Inter-University Council for East Africa, whose secretariat is in Kampala, Uganda, continues to serve the interests of university cooperation in the three countries. Recently, it has extended its activities to cover the Eastern and Central Africa region.

From the three original national universities, Makerere, Nairobi and Dar es Salaam, newer universities were established in the 1980’s with very similar character to the parent universities. Mbarara grew out of Makerere; Moi, Kenyatta, Egerton and Jomo Kenyatta developed from Nairobi; and Sokoin is an off-shoot of Dar es Salaam.

Given this very similar background and the exchange of academic staff between public universities in each country, many of the policies, including international cooperation, have a lot in common. On the other hand, the three private universities chartered in Kenya in the 1990’s have a different background to those of the public universities. Each has a firm religious base and two of them have strong links with American universities.
Current International Activities

Among the modes of international cooperation in the region, study leave, sabbatical leave, international staff, link schemes, development projects, and external examiners feature very prominently. Hosting of international students is not presently a very significant activity in the public universities, but at the private University of Eastern Africa, Baraton, 20 per cent of the student population is international with 8 to 12 places reserved each year for students of Kiswahili and African Culture. Within the region, 37 Ugandan students were studying at Dar es Salaam and Sokoine in Tanzania in 1994/95 and 46 Tanzanians were enrolled at Makerere. No undergraduate students registered in the regional universities were reported to be studying abroad, although there are thousands of nationals from the region who are studying in international universities abroad. Kenya, for example, has about 10,000 students in India, Britain, United States, Canada, etc. None of the local universities have any overseas campuses.

Overseas study leave is used primarily for academic staff development and is supported mainly through external financial assistance. For example, Jomo Kenyatta and Egerton have respectively 35 and 67 staff members currently on study leave, and both universities enjoy very substantial external aid. Makerere had 54 academic staff on study leave abroad during 1994/95 and Dar es Salaam has previously sponsored about 55 staff members on postgraduate training abroad in any given year, most of them for PhD’s. On the other hand, Nairobi and Baraton have about 15 and 9 academic staff overseas on study leave respectively, and Mbarara encourages its staff to do likewise provided they are externally funded.

Public universities in Kenya have hitherto been very popular with overseas students, but given the uncertainties over semester dates in these institutions, it would appear that exchange students now find it difficult to synchronise the home and abroad programmes. Consequently, only small numbers of such students are currently enrolled in those institutions. For example, Nairobi currently has a couple of students each from China and Japan, Jomo Kenyatta has none, but the programme is still active at Egerton where students from East and Central African countries and the USA are enrolled. Mbarara in Uganda has so far admitted six and, as noted above, Baraton has very active participation of international students. The exchange of students between Uganda and Tanzania, noted above, is facilitated by the Inter-University Council for East Africa. Dar es Salaam is very active in hosting international students. Statistics for 1992/3 show that 99 foreign full-time undergraduate students, 77 non-degree students and 44 full-time postgraduate students enrolled there.

The provision of sabbatical leave is a benefit valued by academic staff, but taking it overseas is often problematic because of financial constraints facing the universities in the region. Academic staff therefore find it necessary to individually seek external assistance to cover air fares and upkeep at overseas
universities, although they continue to receive their full salaries at home. At Dar es Salaam, for example, about 11 academic staff members go on sabbatical leave overseas each year. At the same time, East African universities welcome international staff to their respective campuses, often with very substantial local support including salary, housing, medical cover and transport. This is possible where such visiting staff are appointed against established posts or their visits have the support of donor agencies. It should also be borne in mind that many universities in the region still retain a good number of foreign staff.

External examiners are very widely used in the region, for historical and academic reasons. Each Department in any university appoints at least one external examiner per year. Makerere, for instance, appointed 48 during 1994/95. However, due to financial constraints in meeting the cost of travel for the examiners, the host universities make appointments from the national, regional, African and overseas universities, in that order.

Universities in the region establish and maintain a large number of linkages with universities around the world, in Britain, USA, Japan, Italy, Austria, China, Netherlands, Norway, Denmark, Switzerland, Germany, Sweden and other African countries. Indeed, Nairobi, Dar es Salaam and Makerere have respectively about 100, 45 and 22 such links. The links are considered to be highly beneficial to institutions in the region for academic, cultural, financial, personnel and religious reasons. More specifically, the links provide for staff training, equipment, physical facilities, staff exchange, joint research, consumables, vehicles, library books and journals. Where donor agencies are involved, these links often translate into joint development projects of mutual interest to both countries.

It is in this area of link schemes and joint research or educational projects that governments get involved. The degree of involvement depends, of course, on the extent of the collaboration but it is normally limited to the signing of bilateral agreements or memoranda of understanding between the two countries. In other instances, it may involve the granting of research clearance to international staff, the provision of required physical facilities, and monitoring the use of project funds.

**Management of International Links**

Most universities in the region manage their linkages along with other activities, with no special arrangements. The initiation and management processes vary from one institution to another but the common procedure is for Departments, Faculties or committees of Senate to do the groundwork leading to formal university approval, at the level of Academic Registrar, Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Senate, or Vice-Chancellor. Thereafter, the management of the link remains in the hands of the relevant Department, Faculty or Division. However, Dar es Salaam has a separate Links and Projects Office which is staffed by a full-time officer who co-ordinates and
deals with links, cooperation agreements and projects. The Office is responsible to the Chief Academic Officer through the Director of Postgraduate Studies but the Vice-Chancellor is the overall authority. Two other universities have special arrangements: Egerton has a separate office in Nairobi for the management of an international collaborative project, and Nairobi established the Institute of Diplomacy and International Studies which trains postgraduate students for diploma and higher degree awards.

International communication in the universities is facilitated by the use of the telephone, fax, e-mail and such publications as calendars and annual reports.

**Fees**

For many years, international students enrolled in East African universities paid the same fees as the nationals. However, due to the fee structures established in other countries of the world and the need to raise more funds for the local universities, this position has recently been reviewed. With some exceptions, international students studying in public universities in Kenya now pay twice the domestic fee, but the per cent increase for undergraduate and diploma students at Egerton is only twenty. One possible explanation for this disparity is the fact that at this level the University admits a sizeable number of students from other African countries and feels the need to keep the fees to within the affordable limits of sister countries.

There have also been increases in Tanzania and Uganda. At Dar es Salaam, tuition fees for international undergraduate students are over 3 times those for their Tanzanian counterparts. Masters candidates pay thrice or twice for coursework/dissertation or thesis based degrees respectively, and doctoral students are charged twice as much as the nationals. Non-Ugandans at Makerere pay nearly twice as much as citizens for undergraduate or postgraduate programmes. Undergraduates pay three times as much for accommodation.

**Motives**

Universities in the region are very keen to maintain and, indeed, expand their international activities. There are good reasons for doing so, among which are:

* to promote cooperation in research and higher education for sustainable development;

* to create an enabling environment for the faculty to pursue and excel in teaching, research, technology transfer and environmental management under competitive but rewarding conditions;

* to uplift faculty standards of professional competence in teaching, research and technology transfer through staff exchange, short term
training programmes and participation in international workshops, seminars and conferences;

* to admit students from abroad;

* to establish collaborative linkages with other universities outside the region so as to enhance capacity building and manpower development;

* to maintain international recognition and accreditation.

However, some momentum has been lost due to inadequate financing of these and other programmes. As the institutions broaden their financial base, they will undoubtedly participate more fully in international activities and also look to some of them for additional funding.
CASE STUDY OF A UNIVERSITY IN KENYA: EGERTON UNIVERSITY

The Institution

Egerton Agricultural School was founded in 1939 on 400 hectares of land donated by Lord Maurice Egerton, for the purpose of training large scale (European) farmers in the Kenyan highlands. It is located at Njoro, some 200 km west of Nairobi on the western slopes of the Rift Valley. In 1955 it became a College and has, over the years, been playing a leading role in the agricultural training of students from Kenya and the East, Central and Southern African region. Until its inauguration as a full fledged university in 1987, Egerton trained diplomats in all aspects of agriculture, a mandate it continues to have today side by side with degree programmes.

It currently has four faculties, namely; Agriculture, Arts and Social Sciences, Education and Human Resources, and Science, with a total enrolment of 7,600 students and 600 academic staff. Recently, the university launched the Tegemeo Institute for Agricultural Policy and Development.

Since 1962, the year before Kenya’s independence, the principal international partner in the development of Egerton has been the United States Agency for International Development, which has facilitated and funded staff development, staff exchange, international research and education projects, link arrangements with other universities, expansion of physical facilities, and modernisation of technology on campus.

Policies on Internationalisation

The university policies on internationalisation are contained in its mission statement; to provide directly, or in collaboration with other institutions of higher learning, facilities for university education, the integration of teaching, research and effective application of knowledge and skills to the life, work and welfare of the citizens of Kenya. In so doing, the university fosters academic excellence and maintains its international recognition and accreditation. It also stimulates intellectual life, economic and cultural development.

International Activities

Egerton has a very active programme of staff development abroad and in other African universities. Currently, the university has 110 members of staff on study leave, 67 of them outside the country (mostly in the United States, Canada and Britain) and 43 sponsored in other Kenyan universities. Members of academic staff always look forward to taking their sabbatical leave when it becomes due. For those in the region, the opportunity to take it overseas has added advantages: a refreshing change from their duties at home; a change
to establish new contacts and to catch up with new developments in their disciplines; and an opportunity for extra earnings abroad while receiving full salary at home. It is for these and other reasons that many of the academic staff at Egerton have opted to travel to the West for their sabbatical leave.

Visiting overseas staff are provided by the University with housing, local salary, medical service and transport facilities. These terms make the positions very attractive, particularly if they continue to receive support from their home institutions. Recent American visitors have hailed from the University of Idaho, Western Kentucky University, University of Wisconsin, Purdue University and the University of Hawaii. There are also two visiting academic staff from Nanjing University in China.

A student exchange programme is also alive at Egerton with students coming from as far afield as the United States and from the following countries in the African continent: Zambia, Zimbabwe, Uganda, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Cameroun, Ethiopia, Sudan, Malawi and Rwanda. The American students normally come from those universities which have link arrangements with Egerton, whereas African students are sponsored by their home governments to study Agriculture at Egerton.

Egerton has active international research and educational projects, particularly in the field of agriculture for which the university is a centre of excellence. Some of the collaborative projects are in agronomy, horticulture, biotechnology, crop management, and agricultural policy research. Two current collaborative projects help to illustrate how successful and beneficial they can be to the host institution and country.

* The Crop Management Research Training Project (CMRT) provides training in crop management research for middle level crop research scientists from sub-Saharan Africa. The collaborators are Egerton University, The Kenya Agricultural Research Institute (KARI), and the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Centre (CIMMYT) based in Mexico, with funding from USAID and CIDA, among others. Under this project, a total of 88 participants from 11 African countries have taken crop management research courses at Egerton from 1991 to 1994.

* The Agricultural Policy Analysis Matrix (PAM) operated jointly by Egerton, the University of Arizona and Stanford University with USAID funding. Its objective is to provide the most reliable information and analysis on major issues concerning Kenya’s agriculture, through research. It currently has 4 Research Fellows drawn from the participating universities and 5 research assistants, all based in Nairobi for maximum collaboration with the country’s agricultural policy-makers.
The University also maintains link arrangements with universities in the USA (Arizona, Illinois, Maryland), Austria (Vienna), China (Nanjing), and Britain (Manchester, Lancaster), among others. It does not, however, have any campuses outside the country.

**Areas of Priority**

Because of its rich agricultural background, Egerton’s priorities in international collaboration are in this discipline, and it seeks out for partnership reputable overseas universities in the discipline. In crop management, for example, Egerton is co-operating with Nanjing University because of its strong horticulture and agronomy programmes. Similarly, the institution has links with the University of Maryland, Eastern Shore (UMES), for biotechnology ventures and marine research; the University of Vienna on the limnology of the Njoro River; Hohenein University on a goat project; and the University of Negev on dry land farming.

Geographical or ideological considerations do not appear to bear any weight in the selection of collaborating partners although, of course, such linkages will normally require government backing. The majority of the countries involved in staff and student exchanges will, however, be English-speaking, thereby obviating the need to invest time in studying another language.

Amongst the various international activities that Egerton participates in, priority is given to staff development; provision of equipment, books and journals; development of research capacity; transfer of technology; and expansion of physical facilities.

**Management of International Activities**

The management of international programmes depends on the nature and scope of each activity. For instance, the CMRT Project discussed above is supervised by a Project Management Committee with membership of the Director of KARI, Egerton’s Deputy Vice-Chancellor, CIMMYT Liaison Officer, Ministry of Agriculture, and the CMRT Project Co-ordinator, among others. USAID and CIDA representatives attend as observers. This is a fairly autonomous body with wide powers over policy and implementation.

On the other hand, the more traditional modes of international cooperation like study leave, sabbatical leave and exchange of international students are dealt with, at the highest level, by the Deputy Vice-Chancellor. The processing of applications is done at the Department and Faculty levels before they reach the DVC for approval. Similarly, visiting academic staff, once appointed through the normal university machinery, are assigned their duties at Departmental level. There is, therefore, no separate international office for staff and student activities; only collaborative projects enjoy such a facility.
Finance

The financing of international activities, except project funding, is done centrally in a variety of ways. First, funds earmarked for this purpose are set aside for central disbursement, before departmental allocations are made. The university's contribution is also made in form of personnel, vehicles, and physical facilities. On the whole, however, international activities are expected to be either self-financing or funded by donor agencies. In these circumstances, therefore, individual departments are not free to fund their own international activities but any income derived therefrom is retained for similar use.

The level of fees for exchange postgraduate students is set at twice the figure for the nationals, because university education is heavily subsidised for Kenyan students. At the undergraduate and diploma levels, however, the disparity between fees for national and international students is only 20 per cent.

Evaluative Comments

The university has been very successful in its international activities. It has trained its staff abroad; established and maintained many fruitful international links; collaborated in international research and education projects; and greatly improved its physical facilities over the last three decades. In summary, therefore, international cooperation has made it possible for Egerton to transform itself from a middle-level college to a reputable full-fledged university.

Some of the lessons that might be learned from Egerton’s experience are:

* the speed at which planning and implementation takes place is at times slow because of bilateral or multilateral consultations.

* the interface between the various groups of collaborators (national and international) requires special attention because of cultural differences and varying levels of technological development.

* flexibility, without sacrificing the principles involved, is a necessary ingredient of success.

* the universality of any university is greatly enhanced by international cooperation.
THE SOUTH PACIFIC
Vijay Naidu

The Context

Established in 1968, the University of the South Pacific (USP) is a regional institution owned by twelve micro-states, namely Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Nauru, Niue, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tokelau, Tuvalu, Vanuatu and Western Samoa. This chapter is therefore both a case study and a description of international higher education collaboration in these twelve countries. The University is an international institution whose operation depends on the management of cooperation both between island states and with donor countries. Its numerous connections with Pacific Rim countries, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the United States and Japan, as well as with countries beyond the region, including the United Kingdom and nations of the Commonwealth, extend to bilateral and multilateral institutions as well as higher education establishments abroad. Although the relations between the Pacific micro-states are international, the term “regional” is used in this chapter to describe collaboration between the South Pacific member countries and the term “international” is used to designate relations with countries beyond Oceania.

The chapter begins by briefly describing the University’s regional character in the context of geographic isolation, outlining the regional nature of its funding, staffing and student composition and the significance of its distance education and international communications systems. The second part of the chapter discusses international cooperation through aid, affiliation with international university associations, links, visits and conferences, international vettering of standards, collaboration with international agencies and universities in training, research, consultancies and publication. This is followed by consideration of the University’s management structure and processes, issues in the management of international cooperation and proposals for improvements. The chapter describes the current management of international cooperation, which has been strengthened, but advocates the need for a more coherent and deliberate approach to intra-regional and international cooperation and the establishment of an International Relations Office which would be dedicated to overseeing staff and student exchanges.

The South Pacific region has one of the two remaining genuinely regional universities in the world. USP is by its very nature an international institution. Its twelve component countries are scattered “like a handful of confetti” over thirty-three million square kilometres of ocean. It is remote and isolated from metropolitan countries and centres of learning. The island countries which own it are small, their land area comprising in aggregate the physical size of Denmark. They are geographically dispersed from each other, and most of them comprise several islands which are themselves widely scattered. The largest, Fiji, has an area of 18,376 sq kms and a population...
of 750,000, while Tokelau comprises merely 10 sq kms and has 1600 inhabitants. Although the region covers an area that is three times the size of Europe its population is only 1.3 million, Personal incomes in the island states vary quite considerably, with Fiji’s per capita income exceeding US$1500, compared to less than US$500 in Kiribati, the Solomon Islands, Tuvalu, Vanuatu and Western Samoa.

The University’s mission statement requires it to be responsive to the education and training needs of the South Pacific and to maintain academic standards that are acceptable internationally. “The countries of the South Pacific would not be satisfied and ought not to be satisfied, with University degrees which do not command proper esteem” (Mission Statement, 1994, 1). Both these objectives entail international cooperation within the region and beyond. Cooperation amongst the twelve member countries is built into the University’s administrative structure. One of the major challenges for the University is to encourage the development of national higher education institutions without undermining its own regional character.

University Administration

USP’s international and regional character has been maintained by an administrative structure that allows direct participation in policy formulation at the highest level by representatives of the island states who own the institution. As in other regions of the world, countries of the South Pacific are very conscious of and jealously guard their sovereignty. Although the University contributes heavily to the achievement of common national objectives in higher education, it requires a measure of diplomacy to maintain cooperation among them. Disparities in economic development, differences in levels of educational attainment, cultural diversity and perceptions of ‘regional politics’ impinge on their relationships. Ministers of Education, officials of Ministries of Education and Finance of the twelve member countries, together with senior University staff, determine policy matters as members of the University Council. Other important participants in the Council are representatives of Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, the countries which provide the bulk of aid funds to USP. Each year the Council meets once in Suva, the capital of Fiji, and once in one of the other member countries. This arrangement promotes consciousness of the regional character of USP as well as enhancing the sense both of ownership of the University and of belonging to it in the country which is hosting the meeting. Matters discussed include capital development, staffing, academic affairs and student related concerns. A number of joint committees of Council and Senate ensure that Council has a purview over senior staff appointment, resource allocation, financial matters, capital works and academic policy.

The commitment of the countries of the South Pacific to the University is also reinforced by a system of rotating its highest symbolic office, that of Chancellor, every three years among South Pacific Heads of State. The
current Chancellor is Mr Amata Kabua, the President of the Republic of the Marshall Islands, the newest member country of the University.

There is a continuous need to balance the demands of the member nations for university resources and services. This is coupled with complaints directed at Fiji being overly advantaged, both financially and in terms of access to educational and employment opportunities available to its nationals by reason of the location of the main campus. “Battles about decentralisation,” according to one former Vice-Chancellor, “have in fact dominated the University Council over the last decade. Countries outside Fiji feel that if they cannot have their own university, at least they can demand a bigger slice of USP’s real estate and jobs. This can escalate into major political crisis” (Caston, 1993). Caston referred to the case of the Solomon Islands Government threatening to leave the University if the Institute of Marine Resources was not transferred from Fiji to the Solomons. The location of USP’s second campus is in Alafua, Western Samoa, more than a thousand miles away. The new Law School will be established in Vila, Vanuatu. Although the geographic fragmentation of the University might not make economic or educational sense, it does help to ensure on-going commitment to regionalism.

The University of the South Pacific comprises four schools, the School of Agriculture based in Alafua, Western Samoa, and the Schools of Humanities, Pure and Applied Sciences, and Social and Economic Development on the 325 acre Laucala Campus in Suva. Each school comprises a number of academic departments. Linked to the Schools are Institutes responsible for outreach programmes to enhance the capacity of people already in employment, and to facilitate research and consultancy.

University Extension, with its eleven Extension Centres in all except one of the island countries, is a vital component of USP and manifests the University’s commitment to providing access to affordable education to island people. It organises and services the vast distance education programme, as well as providing various kinds of continuing education to the island communities.

Finance

The triennial estimates by the University are examined by a University Grants Committee (UGC) which comprises representatives of regional governments and the larger donor countries. The UGC makes recommendations to the Ministers of Finance of all the member countries, who determine the level of government finding for the following three years. The contribution of each member government is apportioned on the basis of an established formula which has evolved over the years, and is regularly reviewed by the Ministers. The University’s recurrent budget (in 1995 F$34 million; US$23 million) is funded largely by the member countries of the University. Sixty percent is provided as a general grant which is apportioned between the contributors on
the basis of the number of students (Equivalent Full-time Student Units, EFTSUs) from each; a further thirty per cent as Special Grant based on salaries paid by the University in each member country; and 10 percent is provided as aid by Australia and New Zealand.

On average, Fiji shoulders about 75% of the recurrent budget, Western Samoa 6%, Solomon Islands 5%, Tonga 4%, Kiribati and Vanuatu 3% each, the remainder being shared by the other six smaller member countries. Seventy percent of the recurrent budget is expended on staff salaries.

**Staff**

The University’s mission statement stipulates that USP has “the dual objective of optimizing the number of high quality regional staff while maintaining a significant number of non-regional staff of international standing” (1994:4). These objectives are fulfilled by recruiting staff internationally in open competition, and by systematic staff development for regional staff.

In 1994 there were 364 Academic and Comparable staff, of which 63% were from 10 countries in the region, and 37% from 21 countries outside it. The largest contingents were from Fiji (about 170), Western Samoa (some 30), Australia (33), Britain (29) and USA (22). Inducement allowances are paid as a deliberate strategy to make USP positions in areas of high demand attractive for good quality candidates.

While the primary mode of recruitment of non-regional staff has been by advertisements in the international print media, such as Times Higher Educational Supplement, from time to time organisations such as the Australian Vice-Chancellors’ Committee, the British Council and the Association of Commonwealth Universities have also been used to recruit staff.

Citizens of the region now comprise two thirds of the University’s academic and related staff and about fifty percent of the teaching staff. Although most regional staff members are in relatively junior positions, some hold the most senior positions in the University, including that of the Vice-Chancellor, two of his three deputies and the Registrar.

The University has invested heavily in the development of regional staff through a programme of staff development funded by external aid. Since 1968, 170 staff members have been sent abroad to upgrade their qualifications (Pillay, 1993, 94). Over the last three years, more than fifteen regional staff (the equivalent of fifteen percent of regional teaching staff) have been studying abroad, supported mainly by scholarships and fellowships provided by British (6), New Zealand (2), Australian (5) and Canadian (1) aid. The staff concerned are enrolled in post-graduate studies (usually for PhDs) in universities in these countries. In the past staff have also studied under various Commonwealth awards. Previously the disbursement of funds and
oversight over staff on such training awards was the responsibility of a donor country agency, such as the British Council or AIDAB. USP, through its Planning and Development and Staffing Offices, has taken over the administration of these aid funds.

Students

Since 1968, approximately 10,000 students have successfully completed programmes of studies at USP. A further 10,000 have undertaken short-term courses in continuing education and in-service programmes. Currently, there are 3357 students in the face-to-face mode and 5419 students pursuing studies in the distance mode, totalling 8776 students, or 4500 Equivalent Full Time Student Units (EFTSUs). The following table provides a breakdown of students by country between 1980 and 1995.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cook Islands</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>1719</td>
<td>2322</td>
<td>4392</td>
<td>5811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiribati</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marshall Islands</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nauru</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niue</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34</td>
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<tr>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokelau</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonga</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuvalu</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Samoa</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>2599</td>
<td>4010</td>
<td>6720</td>
<td>8776</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In aggregate, since 1980 there has been a more than threefold increase in enrollments at the University. The category ‘Others’, comprising 152 students (99 in the internal mode and 63 taking extension courses), represent those who are non-citizens of member countries of the University. These students come from non-member Pacific Island countries such as the Federated States of Micronesia, as well as from Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Canada, the United States, Israel, Korea, China, Sri Lanka, India, Nigeria and Burma.
Non-citizens of South Pacific countries are well represented in postgraduate programmes.

Distance Education and Communication

Both in a bid to decentralise and to provide relatively inexpensive and accessible education to citizens of all its member countries, the University has actively promoted distance education. University Extension is responsible for dispatching course materials and assignments, teaching and keeping students informed through satellite teleconferencing, high-frequency radio, and E-mail, and managing face-to-face tutorials in Centres in each of the member countries. The eleven University Centres provide a physical presence of the University as well as interface between academic staff (who are largely based in Fiji but many of whom travel frequently in the region) and the students, and offer ongoing continuing and non-formal education.

Forty four percent of the University’s EFTSUS comprise distance education students, but in terms of head count they make up sixty percent of USP’s students. Since 1994 full-time enrollments at the Centres have increased phenomenally. Many students are taking the Augmented Foundation Programme (equivalent to the Freshman year on-campus, and a growing number are enroled at vocational and degree levels.

International Cooperation

Academic institutions by their very nature need to keep abreast with international developments in various fields, in the ‘culture of teaching and learning’, in research, in technological “innovations, for instance in communication and information systems, and in trends in the management of resources. USP recognises “that it must take full cognizance of international changes and challenges, particularly in the Asia/Pacific region, in order to serve its member countries effectively” (USP Mission Statement, 1994, 1). The University “is committed to providing the governments and the peoples of its member countries with high quality, internationally recognised, relevant, and cost-effective higher education and training, research, publications, and consultancy services” (Ibid, 1). For very sound academic, financial and development reasons, international cooperation (i.e. cooperation with countries outside its region) is intrinsic to the operations and development of the University.

There are several dimensions of international collaboration which USP has actively encouraged. These include financial support from bilateral and multilateral agencies to fund capital projects, training programmes and staff development; membership of international university associations; links and visits; conferences; international vetting of standards; collaboration with international agencies and universities in research, consultancies and publications.
International Aid

Altogether external assistance to the University amounted to F$12.5 million in 1994, and included institutional development and training, technical support and capital development. This assistance came from Australia (30%), New Zealand (17%), European Union (14%), Britain (8%), Canada (7%), United Nations (6%), United States (4%), France, Japan and other organisations, including the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation, and the Sasakawa and Macarthur Foundations.

Aid plays a crucial role in the University’s overall finance. Many of the students from countries outside of Fiji are beneficiaries of educational aid as recipients of Third Country Awards, i.e. they receive scholarships to pay the full cost (fees and maintenance) of their education at USP, as part of the bilateral aid programme to their country. Australia and New Zealand are the major donor countries in this respect, TCA students pay the full economic fee to the University but such fees are returned to their respective countries and go towards helping those countries meet their financial obligations to the University.

Australia, New Zealand, Britain and Canada have contributed to virtually all the major building projects since the University’s establishment. Currently AUSAID is funding a four million dollar construction of buildings on the Alafua Campus in Samoa.

Since 1994, British aid to the University has become more flexible and as a result a UK/USP Scholarship Programme has been initiated to encourage science education in the region. Some twenty awards have been made for undergraduate and post-graduate studies in the sciences.

The Canadian Government through its Canada-South Pacific Ocean Development Programme (CSPOD1) has played a significant role in promoting higher education in the area of Marine Studies at the University. The Ocean Resources Management Programme (ORMP) was established to run undergraduate programmes in marine resources management and law of the sea, as well as short-term training workshops in marine related matters in the region and post-graduate studies. Under CSPOD1 major steps have been taken in promoting public education and a Pacific Marine Information Network (PIMRIS) as well as a comprehensive five year plan for the Marine Studies programme have been developed.

Recently the Government of Japan committed itself to providing funds for major capital development for the University’s Marine Studies Programme, as a bilateral aid project to the Fiji Government. As a country Fiji obtains very limited development assistance from Japan but the possibility of assisting the University’s Marine Studies Programme, an area of considerable Japanese interest, has resulted in successful negotiation between the Japanese Government and the Fiji Ministry of Agriculture, Forests and Fisheries. The
Japanese Government is also now seeking representation in the University’s decision-making bodies, including the Marine Studies Programme Advisory Board, a matter which is still under consideration.

A private Japanese Foundation, the Sasakawa Peace Foundation, is currently funding the teaching of Japanese Language courses at the University through support for a Japanese Language lecturer. Sasakawa Foundation’s Young Leaders Fellowship Fund has provided an endowment of a million dollars, income from which supports the post-graduate Development Studies programme at the University. The SYLFF endowment covers the salary of the Co-ordinator of the programme as well as providing scholarships to students.

USP is seeking funding from the Sasakawa Foundation and the European Union for its own satellite communication network and teleconferencing facilities (the USPNET). Apart from the approximately $4 million required for the capital costs, there are issues relating to national monopoly carriers’ willingness to allow the University to have its own network, all of which require delicate negotiation with the different island states.

**International University Associations**

USP is an affiliate of a number of international university bodies which broadens its network with metropolitan and developing country institutions as well as facilitating the sharing of information on trends, issues and challenges that face higher education establishments. The organisations that USP works closely with include the Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU), New Zealand Vice-Chancellors’ Committee (NZVCC), the Australian Vice-Chancellors’ Committee (AVCC), International Association of Universities (IAU), Conference of Asian and Pan Pacific University Presidents, Conference of Registrars of Commonwealth Universities in South East Asia and Pacific Area (SEAPA) and the International Meeting of University Administrators.

**Student Exchange Schemes**

Contributing to the cosmopolitan character of the University each year are students who come from outside the South Pacific region under various exchange programmes. The University is involved in ten such arrangements, several of which are still under discussion. The partners are the University of Papua New Guinea, University of Hawaii, Sonoda Gakuen University (Japan), American universities affiliated to the International Student Exchange Programme, two New Zealand universities, three Australian and one Canadian.

Each year since 1974, two students from the University of Papua New Guinea have spent a year at the Laucala Campus and two students from USP have
gone to UPNG. Since 1988, two or three American students from mainland Universities spend a semester taking courses at USP under the International Student Exchange Programme (ISEP) and two USP students study in American universities for a year. With the cessation of support funds from the US Government, it is likely that the ISEP scheme will terminate. Lack of funds has already led to the discontinuation of links with the University of Hawaii. The Sonoda Gakuen Women’s University/USP scheme does not involve taking formal academic courses but is more a cultural exchange programme. Each year five students and a member of the staff of the Japanese university visit USP for 4 weeks to observe and participate in cultural activities, and three USP students spend 6-8 weeks in Sonoda. The USP/Sonoda exchange programme is funded by the Kansai Oceania Society of Japan under the Japan-Oceania Society for Cultural Exchanges.

USP is a founding member of the Commonwealth Universities Study Abroad Consortium (CUSAC) together with 27 other universities. This network of universities in the Commonwealth seeks to facilitate student mobility among them, so that a part of their education is obtained in a university in another country. USP has had two Canadian students under the scheme so far, and the University of Sydney has allocated funds for a student to study in Sydney. There are a number of other exchange schemes that the University is involved in. These include a semester programme with Massey University for Development Studies students at USP and staff and student exchanges with the University of Otago’s Marine Science Faculty. Negotiations to institute an exchange of students taking studies in Community Development at Victoria University of Technology and USP have now been completed. Likewise a memorandum of understanding has been signed between the University of Canberra and USP to facilitate the exchange of students majoring in Economics.

**Staff Development**

The University has an extremely active staff development scheme which has been directed exclusively at regional members of staff (citizens of the twelve member countries). The scheme was developed to provide training opportunities to promising regional staff without Ph.Ds. (Non-regional staff hired by the University are expected to be fully qualified.) All regional staff are eligible for training leave after three years of satisfactory service. The University offers about six fully-funded training leave awards per year (scholarships, living expenses, research expenses etc.), all out of aid funds, as well as non-supported training leave in cases where staff have obtained external funding. Very occasionally, staff are given leave without pay for training purposes.

Regional staff are also eligible for short attachments abroad, mostly for technical and junior staff. These staff are expected to receive intensive, on-the-job training and exposure. This too is funded by aid, and is focused on Australian and New Zealand institutions.
Both regional staff and non-regional staff are considered for short-term visits to overseas institutions for a range of reasons: to strengthen institutional arrangements, to examine different academic and administrative systems, and to strengthen collaborative research and publications. All of these are aid-funded.

Links

The British Council has traditionally funded study visits by academic and comparable staff from USP to universities in Britain. From the early 1990s, these visits have been focused around a limited number of links between USP and a number of British universities with beneficial results for USP. A link between the Department of Geography and that of Keele University, focusing on collaborative research and publications and on Geographical Information Systems, resulted in the establishment of USP’s first GIS activities which include a digitizer and GIS software. A link between the USP Department of Physics and that of Nottingham University has been specifically focused on the development of laboratory manuals and collaborative research in environmental physics.

The Marine Studies Programme has established links with institutions in Canada, Japan and New Zealand, and a new link is under consideration by the Canadian government between the School of Social and Economic Development (SSED) and the University of Western Ontario. SSED also has link arrangement with the University of Oregon for staff exchanges.

The University also provides for academic staff to visit other universities to collaborate on research, publications, and to gain exposure to other systems of academic life and management systems outside these links. These visits, funded through British, Australian and New Zealand aid, are expected to remain an important part of staff development at the University.

Conferences

Because of its geographical isolation, the University always encourages staff to attend conferences. Academic and comparable staff are eligible for one, all-expense paid, conference leave every contract period of three years. Many staff, in fact, attend more than one conference per three years by being invited and funded by external agencies. The actual administrative arrangements covering conference leave are not very effective, and a reform of these procedures, with control devolved to Schools and Departments is being considered with a view to more cost-effective and innovative arrangements.

The University is also active in hosting national, regional and international conferences. It will, for instance, host the VIII Pacific Science Intercongress in July 1997.
International Vetting of Standards

To maintain internationally acceptable standards, all the academic departments of the University are required to appoint external advisers who are recognised scholars of professorial rank in reputable universities. These external advisers have been drawn largely from British, Australian and New Zealand universities and to a lesser extent from North American institutions. External advisers review courses and programmes of study and advise on their comparability in terms of content and assessment to universities in their own country. The adviser is expected to inform the department concerned about trends and developments elsewhere which might be useful to adopt. External advisers often give public lectures and seminars when visiting USP.

Collaboration with International Agencies

With the support of bilateral and multilateral agencies as well as overseas universities, USP is able to mount short-term in-service training programmes, as well as carry out joint research, consultancy and publications. Such cooperation is best illustrated in the work of the Institutes. All of these have worked on joint research, consultancy and training with bilateral and multilateral donor agencies. Currently, the Institute of Education (IOE) is the implementing agent for UNESCO’s Pacific-wide Primary and Literacy Education (PALE) Module of the Basic Education and Life Skills (BELS) Programme. The Institute of Marine Studies and the Marine Studies Programme have several co-operative arrangements for research and training with ORSTROM in Noumea, the University of Otago, the University of Victoria, the University of Tokyo and the International Oceans Institute (101), based in Malta. In collaboration with 101, the Marine Studies Programme has been identified by UNDP as a Global Environment Facility (GEF). The Marine Studies Programme also collaborates with Astrolabe Incorporated of America, to maintain a research facility, the Dravuni Island Field Station.

The Institute of Social and Administrative Studies (ISAS) has been collaborating with the World Bank’s Economic Development Institute (EDI) and the European Union to mount training courses for middle and senior managers in public and private sector organisations. ISAS worked with Deakin University and the Snowy Mountain Engineering Corporation (SMEC) to offer courses in financial and personnel management for middle-level officers in the region’s Development Finance establishments in 1996.

Management of International Cooperation

The Vice-Chancellor’s Office is responsible for the management of international co-operation. Under the general guidance of the Vice-Chancellor, the Pro Vice-Chancellor (Academic) is responsible for international student matters and the Director of Planning and Development is responsible for all other aspects of international co-operation.
The Pro Vice-Chancellor (Academic) is assisted by the Student Exchange Schemes Committee (SESC), a sub-committee of the University’s Academic Committee, whose membership includes all schools, student services, the University of the South Pacific Students’ Association (USPSA), and representatives of former exchange students. The SESC makes overall exchange-related rules and regulations for the Academic Committee’s approval and selects students for the various exchange schemes. It also promotes the concept of student exchange in particular and international co-operation in general.

The Planning and Development Office (PDO) has more extensive international responsibilities. In fact, this office was, until recently, largely an aid coordinating office. Its restructure in the last three years to become an effective Planning and Development Office has strengthened the University’s capacity to both negotiate and manage finances and provide long term vision and planning. The PDO comprises five staff and is headed by a Director of Planning and Development (DPD), a professorial level appointment. It advises the Vice-Chancellor and the University on strategic planning (including aid) issues; develops planning mechanisms to ensure that the Mission of the University is accomplished; undertakes negotiations (with the Vice-Chancellor) on aid matters; periodically reviews aid arrangements to ensure that they both serve the objectives of the University and are cost-effective; develops guidelines for the overall, increasingly decentralised, management of the aid programme; and assists various sections to set up systems for effective aid management. PDO vets Memoranda of Understanding with other institutions and bilateral and multilateral organisations.

The appointment of additional staff in other sections (Bursary, Staffing Office, Buildings and Grounds) funded directly out of the overhead charge on aid is intended to cope with the increased aid workload, as well as to improve the university’s aid management.

Most of the major aid programmes have, with the co-operation of donors, been restructured to give the University a greater allocative role as well as to allow almost totally delegated day-to-day aid management. This has provided considerable scope for subjecting aid allocations to the same degree of scrutiny that the recurrent budget receives.

**Issues**

USP has been able to manage cooperation at both regional and international levels reasonably well. Its experience has largely been one of a very considerable degree of compatibility and even complementarity, in relations between its regional mission and external demands. For instance, progress in human resource development in marine resource management has been made possible by a commonality of regional purpose and external funding. There are however certain areas that need to be addressed to enhance the
University’s capacity to be both pro-active and responsive in areas of international cooperation.

ongoing issues relating to international cooperation maybe divided into those that occur at the regional level and those that originate at the international level. A number of these, such as bilateral aid which facilitates the involvement of metropolitan universities in the development of national institutions, overlap.

(a) Regional

The current international economic climate and the rush to trade liberalisation do not augur well for the small island developing states of the South Pacific, which have already experienced a decline in real income over the last decade. As these countries provide ninety percent of the University’s recurrent budget, their economic predicament has implications for future cooperation in the regional university. A number of countries have been lagging behind in paying their contributions over the last few years, but the decision to charge interest on the debt has brought prompt payments.

When the sluggish performance of Pacific island economies is considered in conjunction with the redirection of aid by donor countries such as Britain and the United States there is cause for even greater concern. The withdrawal of USAID from the region has already resulted in the discontinuation of the International Student Exchange Programme. At a time when the demand for higher education is growing enormously, resource constraints may affect the university’s ability to respond.

Another on-going area of tension is the pressure for decentralisation in order to distribute university capital development and staff in non-campus countries. While there is some scope to expand University Extension facilities, the closure of entities such as the Institute of Rural Development in Tonga and the Atoll Research and Development Unit in Kiribati for lack of effectiveness point to the need to respond with caution to demands for decentralisation.

The Council’s decision to locate the new Law School in Vanuatu has already produced uncertainties. Fiji students, who comprise close to eighty percent of the law students, are ambivalent about moving to Vila, while Vanuatu students presently make up only a handful of the School’s intake.

Regional cooperation is not easy to foster because of competing national aspirations. A number of member countries have been toying with the idea of establishing their own separate national university. In at least one case there is encouragement of such aspirations by certain
metropolitan” institutions which seek to profit from the bilateral aid available to the country concerned, by contributing as consultants. Little consideration is given to the long-term viability of such national institutions.

The position of some donor countries has been no less ambiguous. On the one hand, recognition of the lower unit cost of sponsoring students for studies at the USP, as well as the benefits for future leadership of studying in a regional and culturally diverse institution, have prompted Australia and New Zealand to allocate Third Country Awards for study at USP on a bilateral basis to the island countries. On the other, the interests of their own national universities and the general priority given, especially by Australia, to export-education, has resulted in pressure being applied within the recipient island countries for students to study in the donor countries. Some scholarship offices in member countries succumb to this pressure with the result that many of the academically more able students are sent abroad to study in subject areas taught at USP, and at 3 to 4 times the cost. The availability of scholarships tenable at Rim country institutions has also encouraged the outflow of large numbers of the best high school students. This has meant that external aid has been used to pay for vastly more expensive education (at donor country institutions) with the opportunity cost of denying three to four other students who could have studied at USP for the investment on a single student overseas. In addition, by depriving the regional institution of the ‘cream’ of high school students the maintenance of academic standards is made much more difficult.

(b) International

International issues in the management of cooperation include the need to maintain and co-ordinate the many and varied areas of collaboration which occur at different levels of the University. Cooperation may be at the level of an individual staff member with his or her counterparts abroad, a department, an institute, a centre, a campus, and the University as a whole. To ensure that collaboration is beneficial to the University there is a process of screening co-operative activities. However, in some instances, by the time the Planning and Development Office is informed, negotiations at the lower levels may have gone too far. In one such case the University had developed course materials and manuals which will be used world-wide but with no copyright.

Recently, a number of large pharmaceutical corporations in conjunction with metropolitan universities and organisations such as the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) have sought to involve the University in the collection and processing of plant and marine samples. The University is concerned that it may get involved in legal liability involving the intellectual property rights of indigenous communities on
the one hand, and obligations to foreign corporate enterprises as a result of signing agreements with them. The political consequences of any controversy involving island people and their ‘exploitation’ by foreign interests assisted by the University can be extremely damaging. The University requires legal expertise as well as political sensitivity in this field to be best advised on the complex issues involved.

An area of weakness in the management of international cooperation is the organisation of student exchanges and the absence of staff exchanges. The current practice of dispersing this work among a number of administrative staff in different offices is not satisfactory and results in unnecessary delays in responding to queries from universities and individual students. A unit is required to cater for the special needs of students from beyond the region, as well as negotiate and facilitate student and staff exchanges. There is little dissemination of information about exchange programmes, while information about the institutions involved is often inadequate or non-existent. Any staff exchange is the result entirely of individual staff initiative and dependent therefore on the time and energy remaining to individual members of staff after attending to their other responsibilities.

Another area of concern is whether an initiative is donor-driven or reflects genuinely felt needs. Both French and Japanese language programmes, for instance, which are funded by external sources, were offered before formal courses in any major Pacific language had been developed. The numbers of students subscribing to these foreign language courses are small, indicating limited demand.

Still another aspect of international cooperation relates to the time and effort it takes to negotiate funding for a project, providing the required accounts, doing the paper work and responding to formal and informal reviews of the project. For a relatively small institution this can be extremely time-consuming and demanding.

Related to taking up a donor-driven activity are the questions of the University’s capacity to undertake the project as well as the benefits which will accrue to the University. In a number of in-service training programmes funded by external sources, the University found itself appointing resource persons who were strongly pushed by the donor agency, while the overall gains to the institution were minimal. In some instances, USP has become a partner in a joint project with one or more overseas institutions in order to respond to a regional need, only to fund that the partner institution did not provide full information on funding or relative inputs, with the result that the University subsidised the activity from its own limited resources.

The co-ordination of international cooperation is itself a major difficulty, as relationships with external agencies may be established
by various units of the University. While individual initiatives in networking with counterpart researchers abroad can be most productive, in some instances (such as the collecting of samples of terrestrial and marine organisms) they may have such serious implications that the University is forced to be vigilant and to monitor staff activities.

Currently the policy is to encourage the various units of the University to initiate contacts with external organisations and to discuss the possibility of working together, but when such discussions reach the point of agreement, to require reference to the Vice-Chancellor’s Office for vetting and approval.

Conclusions

USP as an institution is a product of international cooperation within the region and beyond. From the foregoing description of the more significant connections of the university it is apparent that international cooperation, at both regional and international levels, have been most beneficial for the University.

At the regional level, the University needs to strengthen its ability to respond rapidly to the needs of the island countries. The University’s presence needs to be given a high profile so that the sense of USP being dominated by Fiji is reduced. It is hoped that the University Extension Centres will in future become involved in a wider representation of the University, with their Directors representing the Vice Chancellor in the respective member countries.

International cooperation needs to be monitored closely to ensure that there are benefits accruing to the University in terms of financial gains, enhancement of staff capacities and the achievement of the objectives of the University in teaching, consultancy, research and publication. An office of International Affairs is needed to cater for the needs of students from beyond the region as well as to negotiate and facilitate student and staff exchanges.
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