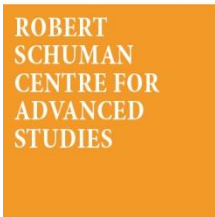




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RSCAS PP 2013/13
Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies
Global Governance Programme

Globalisation in Higher Education –
Manifestations and Implications

Ute Lanzendorf

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RSCAS Policy Paper 2013/13

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ISSN 1830-1541

© Ute Lanzendorf, 2013

Printed in Italy, July 2013

European University Institute

Badia Fiesolana

I – 50014 San Domenico di Fiesole (FI)

Italy

www.eui.eu/RSCAS/Publications/

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Abstract

Globalisation has been adding a permanent new dimension to the world of higher education. So-called transnational or cross-border education is conceptualized here as a complement to the well-established internationalisation process. The paper elaborates on major aspects of globalisation in higher education, namely changes in the degree mobility of students, recent trends in the international mobility of scholars and also the increase in cross-border provision of study programmes (“programme mobility”). Under the latter dimension, the paper focuses on the establishment of branch campuses and foreign-backed institutions and compares different national export and import strategies. After an overview of current globalisation “manifestations” has been provided, possible implications will be sketched as a conclusion.

Keywords

Higher education, globalization, transnational education, international student mobility, international staff mobility, branch campus

Globalisation was first “diagnosed” for higher education around the turn of the century (see, for example, Lanzendorf/Teichler 2003). It is understood here as a complement to the well-established internationalisation process which started in the US in the 1920s and after the Second World War in Europe. The assumption of the author is that the underlying concepts of internationalisation and globalisation differ: Whereas “internationalisation” stresses the existence of different national cultures and aims at intercultural learning and awareness by people from different backgrounds, globalisation is commonly associated with a blurring of (cultural) boundaries and a trend towards cultural convergence, including a convergence of education structures and curricula. Internationalisation promotes the mutual understanding between nations and their education systems. In the context of the globalisation debate in higher education, in contrast, the term “transnational education” has developed, referring to the observation that - in addition to the long-standing, nationally rooted education structures - a global cross-border element of education might develop, coexisting with or in part also absorbing “traditional” structures (e.g. Lanzendorf 2008).

Internationalisation fosters generally accepted goals and therefore practically does not meet with criticism. Globalisation, however, has rarely been perceived as an opportunity by the education community but rather as a challenge and even as a threat (see, for example, Scott 2003, van Vught/van der Wende/Westerheijden (2002), van der Wende (2002)). As was lively demonstrated by the discussion about implications of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) for higher education, globalisation is often associated with competition between education systems, the introduction of market mechanisms and the perception of education as a commodity. Interestingly, Europeanisation can currently be regarded as combining elements of both internationalisation and globalisation; it stands for educational harmonisation (“Bologna process”) as well as for international exchange of staff and students.¹

Opinions diverge with respect to whether globalisation was imposed on higher education through spill-over effects from the industry sector – where it had been one of the core topics in management since the 1980s (cf Bach 2013) - or whether it developed from within the education world itself. Initially, the impression was that globalisation was a “disease” to be cured. In the meantime, however, empirical evidence suggests that it is not a temporary phenomenon (of crisis); its manifestations have rather become integral parts of the worldwide higher education landscape in recent years. In fact, globalisation seems to be adding a permanent new dimension to the world of higher education. This paper will elaborate on the major aspects of this dimension, namely degree mobility of students and the cross-border provision of study programmes (“programme mobility”). Under the latter dimension, the paper will focus on the particular cross-border formats of branch campuses and foreign-backed institutions. Also, recent trends in the international mobility of scholars will be covered. After an overview of current globalisation “manifestations” has been provided for the relevant dimensions, possible implications will be sketched as a conclusion.

International student mobility

Cross-border mobility of higher education students splits up into two formats, the so-called degree mobility, on the one hand, and temporary study abroad, on the other.² Traditionally, student mobility has been the major element of internationalisation in higher education. During the last decade, however, student mobility has changed its structure in a way that there are now important intersections with the globalisation trend.

¹ When elaborating on structural harmonisation and standardisation as a result of globalisation, Münch (2010) identifies an interesting parallel development towards pluralisation at the level of individual lives and identities.

² Degree mobile students take a whole programme outside their home country, and temporarily mobile students spend only part of a programme at an institution abroad.

For each of the two formats of student mobility, participation has quite different dimensions. Across Europe, for example, degree mobility currently concerns about 7 % of enrolment in tertiary level education in a given year and temporary study abroad – as far as it lasts at least 3 months and is recorded by higher education institutions - less than 2 %. However, if one takes graduates as a basis for analysis, the relevance of temporary study abroad obviously increases. This is explained by the fact that students of a given cohort may go abroad at different stages of their programmes so that participation of different individuals during different years accumulates by the time of graduation. In contrast, the participation in degree mobility does not change during a “student lifecycle”. Up to graduation, the group of students within a cohort who came from abroad remains largely unchanged. It is the same individuals who start and terminate a programme as mobile students.

As far as recent trends in international student mobility in higher education are concerned, its spectacular growth during the last decade is the most evident one: According to UNESCO data (UIS online, no year), between the years 2000 and 2010, worldwide participation nearly doubled – it increased from 2.1 million to 4.1 million students (stays abroad of at least one year duration).³ This astonishing development, however, does not indicate that students have become more inclined to go abroad; it should therefore not be interpreted as evidence for an increased relevance of international student mobility. Rather, for an analysis, the even stronger increase in higher education participation worldwide during the same period has to be taken into account. Also with reference to UNESCO data, participation in formal tertiary education increased from 77 million to 177 million students during the reference period from 2000 to 2010. This means that international mobility accounted for roughly 2.7 % of worldwide students in 2000 and roughly 2.3 % in 2010. In other words, in an environment of strong expansion of higher education participation, the share of students participating in studying abroad has remained roughly at the same level.⁴

As we are all aware, the strong expansion of higher education participation in the recent decade primarily took place in Asia. The share of Asians – especially South east and East Asian students – among the international student population has continuously grown; in 2010 students with Asian nationalities represented around half of the foreign students worldwide. The largest individual groups of foreign students originate from China, India and Korea. Due to economic upswing, persisting population growth and a traditional high estimation of higher education, an unprecedented number of Asian families demanded higher education, many more than local universities could absorb in the same period.

As indicated above, the large majority of mobile university students in a given year studies for a degree abroad. Their preferred host region is Europe, followed by the US. According to the international mobility data of UNESCO, OECD and EUROSTAT, between 2000 and 2010, the number of international students in Europe doubled, and in the US rose by over a third. At the individual country level, Australia, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States receive the largest shares of mobile students in the world. Enrolment is predominantly in the social sciences while “humanities, arts and education“ as well as engineering and natural sciences play only a less important role.

³ 10 years ago, a much-cited Australian projection study (Böhm et al. 2002) came to the conclusion that the worldwide demand for international higher education would at least double between 2000 and 2015 and double again by 2025 to reach more than 7 million students. At that time these figures seemed unbelievable, and it was hard to imagine that they would soon prove as even being too conservative.

⁴ It has to be borne in mind that in the relevant period, a reform in the worldwide collection of official student mobility data has led to the exclusion of resident foreign students from statistics. This was realised through substituting the concept of the “foreign“ by that of the “mobile“ student. Instead of nationality, nowadays the country of prior education/residence of a student is recorded in order to identify mobile students. In the foreseeable future, next to degree mobility also temporary mobility will become part of the official statistics of UNESCO, OECD and EUROSTAT (the so-called UOE data collection, cf. for example Richters/Teichler 2006).

The strong increase in worldwide student mobility goes along with far-reaching structural changes in European host systems. These changes reflect the relatively recent “globalisation aspect” of student mobility. At the centre is the new “Bologna structure” of European higher education degrees. Next to specific European development targets for higher education, the Bologna reform stands for the increasing effort European governments put into the active marketing of national study programmes to international students. In Europe, students from third countries are becoming more and more relevant as an economically interesting group of “customers” on a worldwide “higher education market” (for example Hahn 2003). The newly introduced two-tier study structure considerably shortens the time needed to earn a degree. Instead of at least 5 years needed to finish a “traditional” programme, an individual Bachelor’s or Master’s programme takes much less time and therefore requires considerably less investment in living abroad. Students now have the option to leave their home country in order to specialize in a subject the basic knowledge of which they acquired at home.⁵ Whereas under the “internationalisation paradigm” foreign students were expected to master the language of their host country quite well, currently the number of Master’s programmes taught at least partially in English steadily increases. This, however, goes along with the trend to charge study fees from international students which are considerably higher than those charged from local students.

Global mobility of scholars – “Brain circulation”

Similar to student mobility, also the international mobility of scholars⁶ takes different forms. For the purpose of analysis, usually temporary or short-term mobility (involving the return to the institution of origin) is distinguished from mid to long-term job mobility between different countries. Short-term mobility may for example involve field studies or visiting professorships. Typically, the mobile scholar’s contract at the home institution remains in force during his or her absence. In contrast, job mobility leads to a new employment at an institution in another country. It is readily understandable that job mobility may bring about formal problems with respect to social security or family issues.

The available empirical evidence strongly suggests that scholarly mobility is especially relevant to research. For example the international staff survey of Welch (1997) found that the group of “peripatetic” staff identified favoured research more strongly than other (“indigenous”) staff. Later studies further specified this general observation by concluding that international mobility is especially relevant to postdocs and top researchers at a later stage of their career (e.g. Universities UK 2007).⁷

A British analysis of the career paths of highly cited researchers of different disciplines (Gurney and Adams 2005) came to the conclusion that highly cited academics were more mobile than academics on average (45 % of the relevant British population of highly cited researchers in the sample had non-home research experience). In addition, the study by Gurney and Adams (2005) provided data supporting the hypothesis that the country context also influences the propensity of scholars to work abroad. It may function as a push or a pull factor. The study revealed significant differences in mobility according to the country of birth of highly cited researchers: for example,

⁵ Attending, for example, a Bachelor’s programme at a private university at home may be much less costly and involve less cultural difficulties than studying abroad.

⁶ For the purpose of this paper, the mobility of PhD candidates is not considered part of the topic “international scholarly mobility”.

⁷ A recent study of the government-funded “German Academic International Network –GAIN” for German scholars working in North America is a good example for the relevance of international mobility at the postdoc level (Umfragezentrum Bonn – Prof. Rudinger GmbH 2012). On the basis of an online survey among the participants of the hitherto 10 annual network conferences with a total participation of around 800 people, it was documented that about half of the respondents had returned to Germany after an average period of 2 years in the US or - in a small number of cases - in Canada. The majority of respondents was constituted by academic staff below the professoriate for whom international job mobility served as a preparation for successful application for a full professorship at home in Germany.

among those highly cited academics born in Germany, 43 % were working in another country at the time of data collection. For the UK, the corresponding percentage was 9 %, for France 7 %, for the Netherlands 10 % and for Italy 19 %. According to the data analysed, Switzerland is an important destination country of scholarly mobility. 64 % of highly cited researchers employed there were born elsewhere.

In the context of globalisation and the blurring of national boundaries, two types of development have been observed for the mobility of scholars: on the one hand, international scholarly mobility has gained quantitative importance. Temporary as well as job mobility have increased, not only between less developed and more advanced university and research systems but also between advanced systems. Notably, the development of specific support schemes and the overall trend towards internationalisation of higher education and research have stimulated a rise in temporary mobility. Job mobility has been enforced in particular through the liberalisation of European regulations for the issuing of work permits to highly skilled people.

On the other hand, in addition to one-way or return mobility, there is a trend towards “mobility progressions” involving successive stays in different countries. Today, in the global research community, it is not uncommon for individuals to move from one country to another during their career, including the (temporary) return to their country of origin. Thus, the notion that scholarly mobility should be discussed under the concept of brain gain versus brain drain is not as prominent any more as it was in the 1990s and before. On the global level, the win–lose perspective has lost relevance. Due to the almost constant fluidity of a part of the worldwide research community and positive experiences with returns of mobile scholars to their countries of origin, it has become more difficult to identify countries which, in the mid- or long-term, suffer net losses from the mobility of scholars.

Studies commissioned by different European governments could, for example, not sustain the impression that there was a loss of talent towards the US (for instance, for the UK Gurney and Adams (2005) identified a net gain of highly cited researchers vis a vis the US). Against this background, the term “brain circulation” was coined at the start of the century and now serves as a new point of reference for the analysis of global scholarly mobility. It has a rather positive connotation: the current perception is that the international mobility of scholars promotes the development of science because it constitutes a core element of international networking and as such contributes to advancing and innovating the disciplines.

Unfortunately, the statistical data base on the global mobility of scholars is fragmented. In principle, it should comprise “flow data” as well as “stock data”. Different national data collections have varying foci. A specific Europe-wide data collection exists for participation in European mobility schemes only, the European Labour Force Survey, for example, does not provide relevant information. Internationally comparative data, for example, is limited to staff mobility for teaching abroad under ERASMUS and participation in the Marie Curie programme which supports temporary mobility of research active staff. The discussion about an introduction of a comprehensive European data collection on international job mobility of scholars is advancing slowly.

At the national level, data series concentrate on different subgroups of mobile scholars and contain limited details on individual mobilities. Although major countries of destination have been recording data for quite some time already, information on the number of movements and personal characteristics of mobile scholars is still rather incomplete. In the following, best available information will be summarised to provide a rough idea of the extent of scholarly mobility to and from major countries of destination (the UK, Germany and the US).

The UK compiles quite comprehensive information on international job mobility of its academic staff. Employment-based data on the annual in- and outflow of researchers and lecturers is part of official national statistics. In addition, official data also covers the nationality of all academic staff,

thus providing an idea with respect to the overall population of scientists having entered the country from abroad. Only the number of academics with temporary academic activity abroad – not involving change of employment - is not (yet) available.

According to the most recent official mobility statistics (HESA 2012), the overall balance of scholarly mobility has been clearly positive for the UK since at least 1995/96 (for the years before 2010, see Universities UK 2007 and Gurney/Adams 2002). In 2010, for example - the most recent staff data published dates from December 2010 - the inflow from overseas among total full-time academic staff totaled about 1 % (2010) and the outflow was below 1 % (2009) (inflow: at least 1,500 academics, outflow: at least 1,000 academics among 118,420 full-time staff). Statistics further distinguish three subgroups: “research only” staff, “teaching only” staff and staff involved in “research and teaching”. The large majority of incoming and outgoing scholars with full-time contracts was categorised as “research only”. Among part-time academic staff, job mobility was by far lower (HESA 2012). The large majority of incoming academics with part-time contracts belonged to the “teaching only” category. Among outgoing academics with part-time contracts, however, “research only” was as relevant as “teaching only” (the third category “teaching and research” was less relevant).

Furthermore, British statistics (HESA) reveal that among the total of just over 181,000 academic staff (full and part-time) at higher education institutions in the UK, there are about 50,000 people with non-UK nationalities (of these, 6,700 with unknown nationality), thus corresponding to 28 % of all academic staff. Since 2005/06, a considerable increase of at least a third has been recorded for this group. Among foreign staff with known nationality, three quarters were employed on a full-time basis. Here, only almost half of that group was involved in research only.⁸ However, it must be noted that academic staff with foreign nationalities have not necessarily been mobile. They may have started their academic careers in the UK or have even lived there for a longer period of time. Unfortunately, statistics no longer inform on the professional grades of international academic staff.

International staff is most relevant in the life and natural sciences. The largest *absolute numbers of international staff* can be found in the two subject fields “Medicine, dentistry & health” and “Biological, mathematical & physical sciences” (around 10,000 people in each field). With respect to the *share of international staff*, the three fields of “Biological, mathematical & physical sciences”, “Engineering & technology” but – not surprisingly - also “Humanities & language based studies” stand out - at least one third of the academics in these fields have foreign nationalities. The *share of non-European nationalities* is particularly high in “Engineering & Technology” (19 % of all academic staff), “Biological, mathematical & physical sciences” (14 %) and “Administrative, business & Social Studies” (13 %). For most subject fields, the US is the most relevant non-European country of origin of their international staff, followed by China. In “Engineering & technology”, however, there are five times as many academics from China as from the US.

For Germany, no specific data on the annual in- and outflow of academics is available, but there is information on total staff with foreign nationalities and also on participation in national mobility schemes. The *absolute number of international staff* has grown in recent years, but the share of international among all staff has risen only slowly. For 2011, official national statistics (Statistisches Bundesamt 2012) document that roughly 10 % (about 33,500) of all academic staff at higher education institutions had foreign citizenship or no/unknown citizenship.⁹ About half of the international staff had EU nationalities, the most important ones being Italian, Austrian, French, Spanish, British and Polish. Asian nationalities accounted for about 20 % and American ones for about 10 % (US citizenship alone for about 5 %). As in other countries, the natural sciences, medicine and health

⁸ Among part-time staff, the majority was involved in teaching only.

⁹ This figure includes staff with a minor job in higher education and thus receiving its main income from another employer. This group of staff accounts for almost one third of total staff at German universities.

sciences, engineering sciences as well as language and cultural studies were most often represented. Among those international academic staff who received the major part of their income from a job at a university, more than 10 % held a chair (Statistisches Bundesamt 2012). This means that about 5 % of professors in Germany have an international background. It can, however, not be established whether they already lived in Germany before they joined the academic sector or at which stage of their academic career they were job mobile.

Temporary stays in Germany of international scholars are statistically covered if they were supported under one of the schemes offered by the more than 30 organisations supplying data for the annual publication on internationalisation in German higher education entitled “Wissenschaft weltoffen”. These schemes support stays at universities and other public research institutions. Most recent data available refer to 2010 and show that more than 12,600 foreign scholars (at at least postdoc level) stayed at least 4 months at a German higher education or research institution (DAAD 2012). The group of German academic staff of universities or other public research institutions temporarily staying abroad under the same conditions (at least 4 months duration of stay abroad, postdoc or higher grade) amounted to just over 5,000 people in 2010 (of a total of at least 45,500 regularly employed staff at postdoc level and higher).

For the US, the regular data collection on international scholars refers to academics with non-immigrant visa. The annual Open Doors Report On International Educational Exchange summarises data on non-immigrant stays of foreign scholars in the country. That information refers to researchers and teachers alike and is regularly supplied by research universities.¹⁰ Non-immigrant visa are issued to scholars on temporary stays and also to scholars with fixed-term employment contracts. Fixed-term contracts may end only after several years, and partly, a change to permanent employment is relatively easy. Thus, official data mix two kinds of information whereas international scholars with permanent employment at a university are excluded from the US data collection. The number of international academics with permanent research posts can only be estimated on the basis of green card provisions in the relevant categories which are subject to certain quotas. Unfortunately, data on US academics abroad are not collected at all.

According to the most recent Open Doors Report 2012 (Institute of International Education 2012), there were 117,000 *international scholars on non-immigrant visa* in the US in the academic year 2011/12 (including all stages of academic career after graduation). Since 2008/09, this figure has been relatively stable, whereas in the decade before, continuous increase had taken place (interrupted by stagnation only around 2002/3 and 2003/04). In total, there are about 1 million faculty members in 4-year degree granting institutions (public and private, full and part-time, without graduate assistants) (Snyder/Dillow 2012). Currently (2011/12), the 30 most important individual institutions of destination of internationally mobile scholars in the US each host between approximately 1,000 and around 4,500 scholars from abroad. More than half of the international scholars on non-immigrant visa originate from Asia, among these nearly half from China alone. An additional 30 % of international scholars stems from the wider European region, including Russia and Turkey. In the list of most important individual sending countries, India follows China, and South Korea is third, Germany fourth and Japan is on the fifth place. The by far most represented subject fields are “biological and biomedical sciences”, “health sciences”, “engineering”, and “physical sciences”. They range from accounting for a maximum of over 20 and a minimum of over 10 % of all international scholars on non-immigrant visa in the US (Institute of International Education, 2012).

¹⁰ Each year, the International Institute of Education (IIE) surveys research universities on non-immigrant teachers and/or researchers who are not enrolled as students in the US.

Study programme mobility

Next to the mobility of students and scholars, the cross-border transfer of study programmes constitutes a further core element of globalisation in higher education. The so-called “export of study programmes” is not an entirely new phenomenon, but was originally the domain of private and small or specialised providers. This changed around the turn of the century when the dimension of new and otherwise unmet demand for higher education especially in Asia but also, for example, in the Middle East became obvious (see also the section on student mobility at the beginning of this paper). Since it was evident that neither the extension of local education systems nor the substantial increase of international student mobility could make it possible to meet this demand, more universities worldwide became involved in programme export. Supported by specific framework conditions created by governments of the countries of origin or destination of programme mobility, also public universities became engaged in what is now referred to as “cross-border” or “transnational” education (cf. for example Knight 2007).

Institutions from Australia, Europe and in recent years also from the US developed and refined specific organisational models for the offer of study programmes beyond their national boundaries. Next to the twinning and franchising modes which allow offering individual programmes in cooperation with partner institutions abroad, branch campuses and even independent new institutions have been set up during the last decade. The branch campus format has especially been employed by Australian and British universities, and the independent foreign-backed university is the preferred “export mode” of German institutions (Lanzendorf 2009a).¹¹ The development of branch campuses abroad in particular was aided by the fact that the Australian government introduced full-cost fees for international students which applied independent from whether these students were enrolled at a campus at home or abroad.¹²

In European countries, governments tend to provide more direct incentives and also guidance to national cross-border projects than in Australia or the US.¹³ In Germany, for example, with very few exceptions, the export of study programmes was incentivised through a specific government funding scheme which has been operating since 2002 (Lanzendorf 2006). The overall situation in Germany currently is such that the government is the most important funder of new transnational projects, at least during their first years of operation.¹⁴ As the major rationale behind its financial commitment, the German government refers to the politically perceived need to increase or to maintain the international visibility of the national higher education and research sector. However, it also has to be noted that the majority of universities in Germany are not allowed to charge tuition fees, so that without financial support it would have been difficult to motivate them to venture into the cross-border transfer of their programmes. At the level of institutional leadership, transnational education still receives little systematic attention in Germany. Rather, there have even been widespread objections against the “selling” of higher education to other countries. In general, therefore, German projects were initiated and developed on the initiative and guidance of individual foreign scientists with study experience in Germany or through political contacts. In addition, after the national funding programme had been in place, unexpectedly, foreign governments on their own initiative suggested newly set up universities

¹¹ However, there are also German branch campuses and British or US-backed universities.

¹² In the US, however, the government plays only a minor role in the establishment of university campuses or new universities abroad.

¹³ In France, there are government policies and government funding for transnational education, although they are not equally relevant for all individual projects (e.g. ACA 2008). In Britain, the government follows the development of offshore activities of national universities but provides only very limited financial incentives. It rather acts as a mediator between national universities and foreign interests and provides strategic “market information” to national institutions.

¹⁴ In addition, regional governments also contribute to transnational education by initiating and financially supporting a small number of projects.

in their countries for an academic backing by German institutions. Germany alone is currently involved in the development of six independent institutions abroad (in Egypt, Jordan, Oman, Turkey, Vietnam and Kazakhstan, see the overview in the appendix).¹⁵ Up to now, these institutions have developed quite successfully: the largest German-backed institution – the German University in Cairo – recently celebrated its 10-year anniversary. It has more than achieved its goals with respect to student numbers. And also the five younger German-backed universities abroad have grown substantially and have established themselves as new partners for higher education in their host countries. They have continuously expanded their study programmes and student intake and successively upgraded their programmes to Master's or even the PhD level. The most crucial point of discussions about the future of these institutions concerns the adherence of education to German standards.

There are also a number of similar foreign-backed university projects from other (non-)European countries. The most important ones include Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University in China, The British University in Egypt, the Université Française d'Égypte, the American University of Sharjah in the UAE, and the Swiss-German University in Indonesia (see Lanzendorf 2009b). Well-established branch campus projects include Monash University Sunway Campus Malaysia, RMIT University Vietnam, The University of Nottingham Ningbo, and Paris-Sorbonne University Abu Dhabi.

As has been mentioned, branch campuses and foreign-backed institutions represent slightly different formats of transnational education. The latter format is still relatively new for the higher education sector (Lanzendorf 2009c). It concerns legally independent institutions located in one country but academically affiliated to one or several universities in another. In contrast to the mother institution of a branch campus, the patron institution(s) of a foreign-backed university bear no financial responsibility. Academic patrons get their costs reimbursed or receive remuneration for their services and may withdraw once study programmes have been successfully established. The spread of foreign-backed provision is largely a result of the demand and potential for investment of receiving countries (mainly mid-income countries). It is their governments, local business persons or personalities from the academic sector who initiate the academic affiliation of national institutions to foreign universities and participate in the funding of the new institutions.

Some of the countries receiving study programmes from abroad, especially in the Arab world, prefer foreign-backed provision to the import of branch campuses in order to prevent foreign ownership in higher education. Others accept both types of provision next to each other. At present, Malaysia appears to be the only receiving country where foreign branch campuses, the franchising of study programmes to local providers, and a foreign-backed university coexist.

The objectives of foreign-backed institutions are quite similar to those of branch campuses: both institutional forms offer young people abroad the opportunity to benefit from modern higher education. They bring in educational and organisational expertise and innovation (see Vincent-Lancrin 2007) and at the same time contribute to the profile and international visibility of the academic partner/mother institutions.

¹⁵ In addition, there are two branch campuses: The German Institute of Science and Technology – TUM Asia (GIST-TUM Asia) and Friedrich-Alexander-Universität Erlangen-Nürnberg Campus Busan (Korea). GIST-TUM Asia offers 5 Master's programmes to about 200 students and has the status of an independent private higher education institution in Singapore owned by the German patron university (Munich Technical University). FAU Busan had the first student intake in 2010. It offers BA and MA programmes in the natural sciences.

Furthermore, the Andrassy Gyula Deutschsprachige Universität Budapest is a multinationally-backed Hungarian institution of higher education.

Other quite visible transnational projects include foreign-backed institutes or faculties being developed at partner institutions abroad.¹⁶

Data availability on transnational programmes and participation in them has substantially improved at the national level. An internationally comparable data collection on offers and participation, however, is still to be agreed upon. Currently, British statistics document the remarkable number of about 400,000 offshore students (excluding the category of “distance, flexible or distributed learning”). Official Australian statistics identify only 80,500 offshore students (2011, among them 32,000 commencing students), representing around 30 % of the total student population and a 5 % increase compared to the year before (Department of Industry, Innovation, Science, Research and Tertiary Education 2012). For Germany, the participation in study programmes abroad should not exceed 20,000 people.

Implications

The international orientation of higher education systems has increased significantly during the last 15 years. This paper has shown that globalisation is bringing about substantial change to the worldwide higher education landscape. Globalisation is interconnecting higher education systems from completely different world regions and thereby creating a much more pronounced structural interdependency than before. It makes it possible that the mobility of people together with the cross-border transfer of study programmes increasingly has a structural impact on universities which goes well beyond the effects of “traditional” internationalisation. Globalisation is moving the “international aspect” more to the centre of higher education. In Europe, in particular, globalisation boosts the effects of the Bologna process. In this part of the world, the Bologna process and globalisation are jointly setting the scene for higher education in the 21st century.

In a mid-term perspective, it will be highly interesting to observe how international programmes and institutions adapt to the local education systems in which they are embedded. Their existence might lead to more standardisation but also to more variety in learning options. Already now, there are first developments visible in the direction of an independence of foreign-backed institutions or branch campuses from their mother or patron universities abroad which goes along with a close networking with the local higher education system.

In addition to the cross-border establishment of new institutions or branch campuses, the setting up of bi-national study programmes or entire departments at universities in partner countries has paved the way for a long-term and close cooperation. But also the less tangible segment of transnational education is growing. It is made up of virtual university courses and e-learning offers. MOOCS are becoming an especially interesting element of this trend.

¹⁶ Among the German projects, interesting examples include

- The Sirindhorn International Thai-German Graduate School of Engineering (TGGS) at the King Mongkut’s University of Technology North Bangkok with 8 international MA and PhD programmes and about 200 students. It is academically run by the Technical University of Aachen,
- the German Engineering Faculty at Moskauer Energetisches Institut (MEI) with 3 Master’s programmes and over 100 students,
- the Fakultät für deutsche Ingenieur- und Betriebswirtschafts-ausbildung (FDIBA) at the Technical University of Sofia with several BA and Master’s programmes and over 600 students,
- the Chinese-German university of applied sciences affiliated to Tongji University in Shanghai (4 BA programmes, over 800 students). A merger with the Chinese-German Hochschulkolleg at the same university (MA programmes, about 350 students) is under planning.
- In Kyrgyzstan, there is the Kyrgyz-German Faculty for information technology at the State University for Construction, Transport and Architecture (BA programme, about 200 students).

It has been exemplified how globalisation manifestations increase complexity as well as competition. Study export projects require the bridging of large differences between education systems from different parts of the world and the accommodation of large groups of students with a cultural background completely different from that of the home student population. There is legitimate skepticism about the possibility to nevertheless adhere to the quality standards of well-established institutions in other countries. At the same time, however, these “manifestations of globalisation” offer unprecedented new opportunities for young generations – in part especially for women - in mid-income countries and for academic capacity building in the “countries of the south”. The last decade has shown that there are manifold chances inherent in transnational education projects. Capacity-building is especially assisted through the availability of attractive job positions for home nationality academics who return from abroad. In addition, with the help of “peripatetic” scholars spending some time at a new institution to assist its setting up, also research and the development of the disciplines in these countries will benefit from globalisation.

The overall experience, for example, with the major German cross-border projects has been positive. There are still new projects in the planning, and only a small number of projects had to be given up in their first years of operation. However, it remains to be seen, in how far the original idea of establishing universities and programmes modeled according to their mother or patron institutions abroad can be maintained and will not be watered down as time goes by and institutions are successively “absorbed” by their local contexts.

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German-backed universities 2012 (by year of first student intake)

<i>Location (year of first student intake)</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic patron(s)</i>	<i>1. Provider of initial endowment 2. Legal form 3. Fee range</i>	<i>Degrees offered, accreditation/ quality assurance</i>	<i>Faculties/departments or programmes</i>	<i>Approx. student number 2012</i>	<i>1. Teaching language(s)/ language classes 2. Study/internship in partner country</i>	<i>Teaching staff</i>	<i>Research</i>
Kazakhstan, Almaty (1999)	Deutsch- Kasachische Universität (DKU)	Universities of Applied Sciences: Hochschule Mittweida Hochschule Schmalkalden Hochschule Wildau	1. The governments involved 2. Private not-for-profit 3. US\$ 660 per semester	9 BA degrees 5 MA degrees Joint BA degrees with patron institutions Continuing education Institution is licensed by the Kazakh government	Economic and administrative sciences Social and political sciences Technical sciences and ecology Industrial engineering	600 (maximum planned is 1,000)	1. Russian, German (from year 3), intensive German and English classes during years 1 and 2 2. BA degree enables MA admission in Germany	Local (permanent staff), guest teachers from Germany	Not currently relevant
Egypt, Cairo (2003)	German University in Cairo (GUC)	University of Ulm University of Stuttgart University of Tübingen	1. Egyptian businessmen 2. Private not-for-profit university owned by a local educational foundation 3. € 2,500 – 4,350 per semester	12 international BA degrees 12 international MA degrees 5 BA and 5 MA degrees have German programme accreditation PhD (binational) in planning Joint degrees with German patrons envisaged	Engineering & materials science Information engineering & technology Management technology Media engineering & technology Pharmacy & biotechnology Applied Sciences & Arts	Ca. 7,000	1. English, German language classes obligatory for 4 semesters 2. Internship in Germany possible, since 2012 Berlin semester abroad programme	Large number of German lecturers	To be developed as part of the university's profile
Jordan, Mushaqar (2005)	German- Jordanian University of Applied Sciences (GJU)	Hochschule Magdeburg-Stendal and a large consortium of further German universities of applied sciences and universities	1. The governments involved 2. Public Jordanian university 3. maximum fee of ca. US\$ 2,500 per semester (international programme)	19 BA 4 MA 1 MBA (FIBAA accredited) Joint degrees with German partners envisaged	Architecture & built environment Business administration Computer engineering & information technology Languages Management & logistics sciences Natural resources engineering and management Applied technical sciences Applied medical sciences	Over 2,000	1. English, German classes are mandatory 2. One study semester and additional internship in Germany for all students	Flying faculty from Germany	Applied research to be developed as part of the university's profile

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<i>Location (year of first student intake)</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic patron(s)</i>	<i>1. Provider of initial endowment 2. Legal form 3. Fee range</i>	<i>Degrees offered, accreditation/ quality assurance</i>	<i>Faculties/departments or programmes</i>	<i>Approx. student number 2012</i>	<i>1. Teaching language(s)/ language classes 2. Study/internship in partner country</i>	<i>Teaching staff</i>	<i>Research</i>
Oman, Halban (2008)	German University of Technology in Oman (GUTech)	Technical University RWTH Aachen	1. Oman investors 2. Private university owned by the company Oman Educational Services 3. € 4,700 per semester (BA programme), € 3,700 per semester (MA programme)	7 BA 1 MA (since 2012) All BA programmes have accreditation by the German ACQUIN. Graduates are accepted for MA study in Germany and Europe	<i>Study programmes:</i> Applied geosciences Applied information technology Environmental engineering Mechanical engineering Process engineering Petroleum Geoscience Sustainable tourism and regional development Urban planning and architectural design <i>BA programmes</i> Finance and accounting Computer science Electrical engineering Natural sciences <i>MA programmes</i> Business information systems Computational engineering MBA in small and medium sized enterprise development Mechatronics and sensor systems technology Sustainable urban planning Traffic and transport Cultural and social sciences Economic and administrative sciences Engineering Law Natural sciences	700	1. English 2. Each programme includes the option of studying part of it in Aachen	The majority of academic staff is from Europe, there are regular guest lecturers from Germany	There is research especially in the field of Oman geography
Vietnam, Ho Chi Minh City (2008)	Vietnamese- German University (VGU)	Ruhr University of Bochum University of Darmstadt University of Frankfurt and various universities of applied sciences	1. Governments involved and World Bank 2. Public Vietnamese university 3. about € 500 per semester	3 BA 5 MA, MBA German and VGU degrees	<i>BA programmes</i> Finance and accounting Computer science Electrical engineering Natural sciences <i>MA programmes</i> Business information systems Computational engineering MBA in small and medium sized enterprise development Mechatronics and sensor systems technology Sustainable urban planning Traffic and transport Cultural and social sciences Economic and administrative sciences Engineering Law Natural sciences	About 500	1. English 2. 1 semester may be spent at patron institutions	Flying faculty from German partner institutions, increase of local staff	Under development
Turkey, Istanbul (first student intake planned for winter 2013)	Türkisch- Deutsche Universität (DTU)	Free University Berlin Technical University Berlin University of Bielefeld University of Heidelberg University of Köln University of Potsdam	1. The Turkish and German governments 2. Public Turkish university 3. BA programmes will be tuition free, MA tuition to be determined	Initially 8 BA 1 MA Joint degrees with German partner universities envisaged	<i>BA programmes</i> Finance and accounting Computer science Electrical engineering Natural sciences <i>MA programmes</i> Business information systems Computational engineering MBA in small and medium sized enterprise development Mechatronics and sensor systems technology Sustainable urban planning Traffic and transport Cultural and social sciences Economic and administrative sciences Engineering Law Natural sciences	A total of 5,000 students is envisaged	1. BA programmes: German, MA programmes German and English 2. to be determined	To be determined	To be determined