National Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education in New Zealand: A Comparative Analysis

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Abstract

Research has observed an ever-increasing emphasis which is placed on the international dimension in higher education. This thesis is particularly interested in the question, why internationalisation? It constitutes a case study of the rationales driving the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, the findings of which are compared with those of the seven European countries (Austria, Germany, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal and the United Kingdom) analysed as part of a recent European Union 5th Framework Programme project. The available research suggests that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation and the first phase of the above project reaffirmed that this was the case at the national level in those countries analysed. This thesis provides an opportunity to corroborate this research and assess whether the same is true in New Zealand. Above all, it intends to contribute to an improved conception of the phenomenon of increasing internationalisation in higher education from which informed discussion and critical debate about its future can take place.

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Abbreviations

ACA	Academic Cooperation Association
CHEPS	Center for Higher Education Policy Studies
CUAP	Committee on University Academic Programmes
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EFTS	Equivalent Fulltime Student
EU	European Union
FCCM	Fee and Course Costs Maxima
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HE	Higher Education
ITPNZ	Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics of New Zealand
ITPQ	Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics Quality
MFAT	Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade
NZAID	New Zealand Agency for International Development
NZQA	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
NZTE	New Zealand Trade and Enterprise
NZUAAU	New Zealand Universities Academic Audit Unit
NZVCC	New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PBRF	Performance-Based Research Fund
TEC	Tertiary Education Commission
TRIP	Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property
UK	United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WTO	World Trade Organisation

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1.   Introducing the internationalisation of higher education

Internationalisation has become a key theme in higher education. However, Jane Knight notes that the term *internationalisation* is used in a variety of ways and for different purposes in relation to higher education. As such, there are many different definitions applied to the term. For the purposes of her analysis, Knight defines the internationalisation of higher education as "the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution."[1] This definition or one very similar is also referred to in the works of other important authors on the subject,[2] and it is the definition that is used for the purposes of this thesis. This definition acknowledges that the actual process of internationalisation takes place at the institutional level. Nevertheless, as this thesis argues, national policies for the internationalisation of higher education and broader contextual factors are still important. Meanwhile, this definition also acknowledges that the internationalisation of higher education is an active strategy, a dynamic process of integrating an international dimension into the core functions of the institution, not simply the existence of a set of isolated international activities.[3]

Research has certainly observed an ever-increasing emphasis which is placed on the international dimension in higher education. This thesis is particularly interested in the question, why internationalisation? Various rationales are often put forward to justify internationalisation. In fact, four categories of rationales can be identified in the available research: political, economic, academic, cultural and social. However, this thesis is interested in what rationales actually drive the internationalisation of higher education. It constitutes a case study of the rationales driving the national policies for

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[1] Jane Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education: a conceptual framework," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries*, ed. Jane Knight and Hans de Wit (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 1997), 8.

[2] Bernd Wächter, Aaro Ollikainen, and Brigitte Hasewend, "Internationalisation of Higher Education," in *Internationalisation in Higher Education*, ed. Bernd Wächter (Bonn: Lemmens, 1999), 12. Marijk van der Wende, "Internationalisation policies: about new trends and contrasting paradigms," *Higher Education Policy* 14, no. 3 (2001): 253.

[3] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries*, 8.

the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand specifically. This thesis builds on a European Union (EU) 5th Framework Programme project entitled *Higher Education institutions' responses to internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation* (HEIGLO), a major research project which looked beyond the rhetoric and helped to explain the increasing internationalisation of higher education and the rationales driving it in seven European countries*. Initiated in November 2002 and co-ordinated by the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS),[4] an interdisciplinary research institute located at the University of Twente, the Netherlands, this project was undertaken in two phases. The first phase analysed and compared the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in Austria, Germany, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal and the United Kingdom (UK). The second phase, guided by institutional theory, looked at the actual responses of higher education institutions in these countries to the challenges of internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation.

1.2.   Research question and subsequent questions

The first phase of the aforementioned research project in effect constituted a pre-study of contextual factors, which were expected to determine the policy context for the second phase. The findings of this pre-study were presented in the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) publication, *On Cooperation and Competition: National and European Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education*, and it is on this work that the current thesis specifically builds.

This thesis proposes to identify the rationales driving the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, and to compare the findings with those of the selected European countries analysed as part of the HEIGLO project and presented in the ACA publication, *On Cooperation and Competition: National and European Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education*.

The subsequent research questions to be explored are:
1. What is the internationalisation of higher education and specifically, its historical context, the current global situation and what previous research exists which is relevant to this thesis?

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[4] CHEPS partners in the project were the:
- University of Athens, Greece
- University of Kassel, Germany
- Institute of Education, University of London, United Kingdom
- Norwegian Institute for Studies in Research and Higher Education (NIFU), Norway
- Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CIPES), Portugal
- Institute for Interdisciplinary Studies at Austrian Universities (IFF), Austria

2. What is the broader national higher education policy context in New Zealand and in particular, what major trends or changes have occurred since 1999?

3. What are the current national policies and regulatory frameworks aimed at the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand?

4. What are the rationales driving the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand?

5. How do the rationales driving these policies compare with the findings of the selected European countries analysed as part of the HEIGLO project and presented in the ACA publication, *On Cooperation and Competition: National and European Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education*?

1.3. Key terms

1.3.1. Internationalisation and globalisation

Knight notes that there are a number of terms which are regularly confused or associated with internationalisation. Most significantly, the terms internationalisation and *globalisation* are often used interchangeably in discussions referring to the international dimension of higher education.[5] For this reason, she sets out the following descriptions:

> Globalisation is the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, ideas... across borders. Globalisation affects each country in a different way due to a nation's individual history, traditions, culture and priorities. Internationalisation of higher education is one of the ways a country responds to the impact of globalisation yet, at the same time respects the individuality of the nation.[6]

Internationalisation and globalisation are, therefore, considered to be different, but dynamically linked concepts in terms of higher education policy.[7] Peter Scott agrees, arguing that internationalisation and globalisation are not "simply different words to describe the same process... [but] radically different processes dialectically opposed... [albeit] linked."[8] Knight summarises that, "globalisation can be thought of as the catalyst while internationalisation is the response, albeit a response in a proactive way."[9]

The internationalisation of higher education can be considered a response to globalisation. As Marijk van der Wende notes, "internationalisation is becoming an

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[5] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries*, 5.

[6] *Ibid*, 6.

[7] *Ibid*.

[8] Peter Scott, "Massification, Internationalization and Globalization," in *The globalization of higher education*, ed. Peter Scott (Buckingham; Philadelphia: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press, 1998), 108.

[9] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries*, 6.

important dimension in higher education policy as developed at the institutional and national level, related to the challenges of globalisation, which increasingly affect the higher education sector."[10] This was certainly the view adopted in the HEIGLO project, where the term *internationalisation of higher education* was used to "depict all the policies and activities of governments and higher education institutions aimed at making higher education (more) responsive to the challenges of internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation."[11] This definition illustrates that internationalisation can be viewed as both an input and an output, while *Europeanisation* is also referred to as an input.

1.3.2. Europeanisation

While the term Europeanisation is not directly relevant to this thesis, it was a key component of the HEIGLO project and is worth discussing briefly here. As Anneke Luijten-Lub notes, "Europeanisation in higher education is not as widely discussed as internationalisation and globalisation."[12] However, some research on the role of Europe and the EU in higher education has been carried out and according to this it can be argued that, as Ulrich Teichler states:

> Europeanisation is the regional version of either internationalisation or globalisation; it is frequently addressed when reference is made to cooperation and mobility, but beyond that to integration, convergence of contexts, structures and substances as well as to segmentation between regions of the world. [13]

The introduction to *On Cooperation and Competition* also points out that:

> 'Europeanisation' is often employed for describing the phenomena of internationalisation on a "regional" scale. Cooperation between EU countries and economic, social and cultural activities crossing their national borders are expanding quickly based on the notion that such cooperation is required for stability and economic growth within the region. Its link to globalisation consists in the fact that this regional cooperation also intends to enhance the global competitiveness of the European region as a whole. [14]

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[10] Van der Wende, "Internationalisation policies," *Higher Education Policy* 14, 250.
[11] Marijk van der Wende, "Introduction," in *On Cooperation and Competition: National and European Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education*, ed. Jeroen Huisman and Marijk van der Wende (Bonn: Lemmens, 2004), 11.
[12] Anneke Luijten-Lub, "Choices in Internationalisation: How Higher Education Institutions Respond to Internationalisation, Europeanisation, and Globalisation" (PhD dissertation, University of Twente, 2007), 30.
[13] Ulrich Teichler, "The Future of Higher Education and the Future of Higher Education Research," *Tertiary Education and Management* 9, no. 3 (2003): 180.
[14] Van der Wende, "Introduction," in *On Cooperation and Competition*, 10.

Luijten-Lub summarises that, "similar to the use of internationalisation, Europeanisation is sometimes also perceived as both an external process putting forward new challenges and an internal process with responses to the external process."[15]

Some observers claim that Europeanisation contradicts internationalisation, but as Teichler notes, "many experts seem to agree that the EU actually became a major driving force for internationalization."[16] Europe is one of the leading forces in terms of the internationalisation of higher education and as such, this thesis views Europeanisation as an external process and an important contextual factor when considering the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand. It is assumed that broader contextual factors, such as recent developments in Europe have an effect on the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, while in turn it is expected that the resulting national policies influence the actual process of internationalisation that is taking place at the institutional level.

1.4.   Delimitations

While it is assumed that recent developments in Europe have an effect on the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, it should be mentioned here that despite Europe being one of the leading forces in terms of the internationalisation of higher education, internationalisation is not simply a European phenomenon. To not acknowledge this would be misleading. Within Europe and beyond, from country to country, institution to institution, internationalisation has become a key theme in higher education. As touched on in the second chapter of this thesis, the United States in particular has played a leading role with respect to the ever-increasing emphasis which is placed on the international dimension in higher education. Hans de Wit notes that after World War II, "the United States determined to a large extent the development and characteristics of the international dimension of higher education"[17] He also mentions that "after the Cold War, Europe and to a certain extent also Australia and Canada have taken over the leading role in developing internationalization strategies for higher education."[18] Nevertheless, this thesis does not focus on the role the United States, nor other countries have played with regard to the internationalisation of higher education to the extent that it focuses on recent developments in Europe.

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[15] Luijten-Lub, "Choices in Internationalisation," 30.

[16] Ulrich Teichler, "The role of the European Union in the Internationalization of Higher Education," in *The globalization of higher education* (see note 8), 88.

[17] Hans de Wit, *Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe: A Historical, Comparative, and Conceptual Analysis* (Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group, 2002), 19.

[18] *Ibid.*

1.5. Purpose

The purpose of this thesis is to refine prior research. The available research suggests that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation and indeed, the first phase of the HEIGLO project reaffirmed that this was the case at the national level in those countries analysed. This thesis provides an opportunity to corroborate this research and assess whether the same is true in New Zealand. While sitting outside the scope of the HEIGLO project, the proposed research ties into this very closely and provides an interesting and valuable comparative analysis with respect to the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in a country outside Europe. Above all, this thesis intends to contribute to an improved conception of the phenomenon of increasing internationalisation in higher education from which informed discussion and critical debate about its future can take place. A frequently quoted statement of Karl Marx, holds that "philosophers have only *interpreted* the world, in various ways; the point, however, is to *change* it."[19] Martin Heidegger replies that "when this statement is cited and when it is followed, it is overlooked that changing the world presupposes a change in the conception of the world. A conception of the world can only be won by adequately interpreting the world."[20] Heidegger's response provides an ideal defence for the descriptive nature of this thesis. It is designed to contribute to the foundational body of knowledge that exists in relation to the internationalisation of higher education. It is hoped that this thesis will be read by policy makers, institutional leaders and fellow higher education researchers, as well as anyone with an interest in the internationalisation of higher education or higher education more generally. However, this work only constitutes the beginning. It is important that research considers its findings alongside wider questions, and the final chapter of this thesis recommends further and more general research. In this sense, the research is cumulative.

1.6. Structure

The subsequent research questions identified above structure this thesis. Chapter two discusses the internationalisation of higher education and specifically, its historical context, the current global situation and previous research that exists relevant to this thesis. This chapter constitutes a review of relevant literature. Chapter three then provides a short overview of the New Zealand higher education system and its internationalisation infrastructure, including identifying changes in the national higher education policy context since 1999. The purpose of these two chapters is to provide a

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[19] Karl Marx, "Theses on Feuerbach," in *Ludwig Feuerbach and the End of Classical German Philosophy*, ed. Frederick Engels (Peking: Foreign Languages Press, 1976), 65.

[20] *Martin Heidegger Critiques Karl Marx*, Video (1969), *http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jQsQOqa0UVc*. Translation verified by the German Programme at the University of Canterbury.

solid foundation from which to address the main research question. Chapter four begins by briefly outlining the current national policies and regulatory frameworks aimed at the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, before presenting the main analysis of what rationales are driving the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand. Chapter five then compares the findings with those of the selected European countries analysed as part of the HEIGLO project, before the thesis finishes with some concluding remarks.

1.7. Methodology

This thesis applies a post-positive view of research and more specifically, the philosophy of critical realism. Post-positive critical realism believes that there is an external reality independent of individual human thought that can be studied through observation. However, it acknowledges that observation is fallible.[21] In this sense, post-positive critical realism is closely linked to the idea of constructivism which holds that each person's view of the world is based on their perceptions of it. Because perception is fallible, it follows that the observations of any one person are fallible too.[22] Thus, pursuing objectivity is important. Objectivity cannot be achieved by simply putting aside individual biases and beliefs, but instead it is pursued through methodology and in particular, triangulation.[23] Triangulation is the application and combination of multiple data sources, methods of measurement and theories to improve the validity of any research which, in the words of William M. Trochim and James P. Donnelly, constitutes "the best available approximation to the truth of a given proposition, inference or conclusion."[24] Different forms of validity can be identified and it is important to express clearly what data sources and methods of measurement are applied and combined for the purposes of this thesis, and what unit and method of analysis have been chosen to improve specific types of validity and indeed, its overall validity. It is also important to acknowledge that research takes place within the context of a larger body of work and should always be open to criticism.[25] Through the ongoing refinement, refutation or replacement of research, validity continues to be improved.

1.7.1. Unit of analysis and its theoretical basis

Before discussing the data sources and methods of measurement that are applied and combined in this thesis, the unit of analysis must first be defined and explained. The unit of analysis chosen for this thesis is current national policies for the internationalisation of

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[21] William M. Trochim and James P. Donnelly, *The Research Methods Knowledge Base,* 3rd ed. (Cincinnati, OH: Atomic Dog Publishing, 2008), 19.
[22] *Ibid.*
[23] *Ibid.*
[24] *Ibid,* 20.
[25] *Ibid.*

higher education in New Zealand. However, the definition used for the purposes of this thesis acknowledges that the actual process of internationalisation in higher education takes place at the institutional level. Why then is the unit of analysis chosen for this thesis, national policies for internationalisation? This thesis argues that national policies for the internationalisation of higher education and indeed, broader contextual factors are important. In this sense, the unit of analysis chosen is defined by institutional theory. The HEIGLO project helped to explain the increasing internationalisation of higher education and the rationales driving it in selected European countries, and the first phase on which this thesis is based was crucial to this because the project was guided by institutional theory.

According to the HEIGLO project, institutional theory believes that "institutions are the rules of the game in a society, or more formally, are the humanly devised constraints that shape interaction. They reduce uncertainty by providing a structure to everyday life."[26] The HEIGLO project followed more specifically Scott's distinction between the three pillars of institutions.[27] According to Scott, "the Pillars framework asserts that institutions are made up of diverse elements that differ in a number of important ways."[28] These diverse elements can be broadly categorised into three pillars: regulative, normative and cultural-cognitive which combine to influence institutions. Although Scott notes that "they posit different bases of order and compliance, varying mechanisms and logics, diverse empirical indicators, and alternative rationales for establishing legitimacy claims."[29] While all institutions are influenced by the three pillars to a certain extent, Scott notes that "they vary among themselves and over time in which elements are dominant."[30]

In terms of the internationalisation of higher education, using institutional theory, the HEIGLO project helped to show that the internationalisation policies and activities of higher education institutions in the seven European countries analysed were strongly influenced by regulative, normative and cultural-cognitive factors. The ACA publication which presented the findings of the second phase of the HEIGLO project, *On Cooperation and Competition II: Institutional Responses to Internationalisation, Europeanisation and Globalisation* concluded that, such regulative factors included "national legal, financial

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[26] Anneke Luijten-Lub, Jeroen Huisman, and Marijk van der Wende, "Introduction," in *On Cooperation and Competition II: Institutional Responses to Internationalisation, Europeanisation and Globalisation*, ed. Jeroen Huisman and Marijk van der Wende (Bonn: Lemmens, 2005), 13.
[27] For more information on Scott's distinction between the three pillars of institutions see: W. Richard Scott, *Institutions and Orgnaisations* (Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, 2001).
[28] W. Richard Scott, *Institutional Theory: Contributing to a Theoretical Research Program* (2004), *http://www.si.umich.edu/ICOS/Institutional%20Theory%20Oxford04.pdf*, 9.
[29] *Ibid.*
[30] *Ibid.*

and administrative contexts and international attempts to harmonise qualification frameworks."[31] Normative factors included "the extent of institutional autonomy and the extent to which higher education is seen as public service or a private good,"[32] while cultural-cognitive factors included, "disciplines and subject areas, language, culture, region, and historical links." [33] The first phase of the HEIGLO project was crucial in helping to explain the increasing internationalisation of higher education and the rationales driving it in selected European countries because national policies describe an important part of the institutional environment which influences the actual process of internationalisation taking place at the institutional level. The purpose of this thesis is not to test institutional theory, but rather institutional theory also guides this thesis. Thus, the unit of analysis chosen for this thesis is current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand. This is based on the expectation that in New Zealand, the internationalisation policies and activities of higher education institutions are strongly influenced by regulative, normative and cultural-cognitive factors, and national policies for the internationalisation of higher education form an important part of this institutional environment that influences the actual process of internationalisation that is taking place at the institutional level.

1.7.2. Data sources and methods of measurement

To address construct validity or the degree to which the actual methods of measurement applied and combined in a study are relevant to the construct or concept that is being tested or measured,[34] it is important that these methods and their relevance are clearly articulated. The nature of this thesis is qualitative and the primary method of measurement that is applied is a cross-sectional case study of the rationales driving current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand. This involves the archival research of primary documents in the form of current national policy documents, specifically those released under successive Labour-led governments from 2001 when *Export Education in New Zealand: A Strategic Approach to Developing the Sector* was released, but the primary focus is the *International Education Agenda: A Strategy for 2007-2012*. Despite the election of a new National-led government in November 2008, this remains the most recent and most thorough expression of New Zealand's national policies for the internationalisation of higher education. The other current national policies and regulatory frameworks aimed at the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand which are the focus of this case study are outlined at

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[31] Anneke Luijten-Lub, Jeroen Huisman, and Marijk van der Wende, "Conclusions, reflections and recommendations," in *On Cooperation and Competition II* (see note 26), 235.
[32] *Ibid.*
[33] *Ibid*.
[34] Trochim and Donnelly, *The Research Methods Knowledge Base,* 22.

the beginning of chapter four, while selected secondary documents are also utilised for its purposes, specifically previous studies that relate to the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand.

Robert Yin defines a case study as an empirical enquiry that "investigates a contemporary phenomenon in-depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident."[35] Some believe that case studies are only appropriate as an exploratory tool.[36] However, case studies are particularly useful for descriptive research such as this thesis which asks, why internationalisation? Indeed, as Yin holds, a case study has a distinct advantage as a method of measurement when "a 'how' or 'why' question is being asked about a contemporary set of events, over which the investigator has little or no control."[37] Nevertheless, there are serious concerns over case studies as a desirable method of measurement, particularly with regard to a perceived lack of rigour. Yin notes that "too many times, the case study investigator has been sloppy, has not followed systematic procedures, or has allowed equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of the findings and conclusions."[38]

Archival research involves the examination of documents and texts and while this method is more commonly applied to historical documents where access to people or a situation is restricted, denied or no longer possible, it can also be employed for the purposes of non-historical research. Indeed, when the unit of analysis chosen for this thesis is national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, it is particularly important that the actual policy documents are examined. However, it is also important to protect against claims of bias and misinterpretation. Any form of qualitative and descriptive research is potentially exposed to these claims and is best protected against them by triangulation. In this thesis, the archival research of primary documents in the form of current national policy documents is combined with an unstructured interview with Paul Lister, Policy Manager of the New Zealand Ministry of Education's International Division. Mr Lister is a key policy maker who has been determined as such through discussion with, and particularly, research into the key government agencies and non-governmental actors involved in the development of these policy documents. He has been chosen as an interview subject because, as is discussed later in this thesis, the Ministry of Education and specifically its International Division,

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[35] Robert K. Yin, *Case Study Research: Design and Methods,* 4th ed. (Los Angeles: Sage Publications, 2009), 18.
[36] *Ibid*, 6.
[37] *Ibid*, 13
[38] *Ibid*, 14.

leads the development and implementation of strategy, policy and regulations relating to international education in New Zealand. This means that Mr Lister who joined the International Division as a Senior Policy Analyst in 2003 and became Policy Manager soon after is in the ideal position to provide an insider's perspective which protects against any potential claims of bias or misinterpretation.

Unstructured interviews are guided by conversations rather than structured queries. The interviewer must still follow a consistent line of inquiry, but the actual questions asked will be fluid, friendly and non-threatening. For the purposes of this thesis, focussed interviews are conducted. A focussed interview is a specific type of unstructured interview which is particularly useful for a case study such as this where interviews are employed to corroborate findings. Focussed interviews remain open-ended and still employ a conversational manner, but they are more likely to follow a certain set of questions. They are designed to avoid defensive or indeed, pre-determined responses from the interviewee.[39] This is particularly important for this thesis which is aware that various rationales are often put forward to justify internationalisation, but is interested in what rationales actually drive the internationalisation of higher education. Nevertheless, as with any interview, it is important to recognise that interviewees' responses are always subject to the common problems of bias, poor recall, and poor or inaccurate articulation.[40] In terms of interviews, it is also important to recognise and fulfil human ethics requirements. Interviews undertaken for the purposes of this thesis have been recorded, but permission has been sought to do so before each interview. Consent has also been sought to publish information related to the interview, while each interviewee has been advised of their right to review the interview transcript and to alter or withdraw information if they wish before publication.

To further achieve triangulation and improve validity the following methods of measurement are also applied and combined. The archival research of primarily secondary documents in the form of previous research and other publications is used to set the broader contextual platform specifically related to sub-questions one and two, although primary documents are used where available and appropriate. The findings of the New Zealand case study are also compared with the findings of the selected European countries analysed as part of the HEIGLO project and presented in *On Cooperation and Competition.* This allows this thesis to not only corroborate the general findings of this research and assess whether the same is true in New Zealand, but also to address the other main concern with case studies that they provide little basis for

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[39] *Ibid*, 106-107.
[40] *Ibid*, 108.

generalised findings.[41] This could certainly be argued with regard to a single case study, but by comparing the findings with similar research of the same phenomenon in a different setting the ability to generalise and thus, improve the external validity of this thesis,[42] is improved. In this sense, it is also important that this comparison acknowledges any specific differences or similarities with certain countries.

1.7.3. Method of analysis and its theoretical basis

The method of analysis used in this thesis to interpret, describe and present the data obtained in the cross-sectional case study of the rationales driving current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, and the subsequent comparison with the findings of the first phase of the HEIGLO project, is thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is an approach to dealing with qualitative data that involves the creation and application of codes in relation to the data.[43] It is useful because the data being analysed can be obtained from any number of sources, including policy documents and interview transcripts, and through a variety of methods.[44] Key points are taken from the data and coded according to categories. Thematic analysis is closely linked to grounded theory, which emphasises the development of theory from data in the process of conducting research as opposed to the traditional mode of research whereby the researcher chooses a theoretical framework and then applies this model to the studied phenomenon.[45] This constitutes an inductive research approach meaning that it moves from specific observations to the more general.[46] It is particularly useful for descriptive research such as this thesis.

For the purposes of this thesis, rationales identified in the current national policies identified above are grouped together into four categories: political, economic, academic, cultural and social. While some grounded theorists may argue that the categories used should only be influenced by the data itself, these broad categories have already been identified in previous research and provide a good starting point for this thesis. These categories are elaborated on more in chapter two. However, it is important to acknowledge that as the data itself is analysed and coded it may become necessary to modify the definitions of these categories, or sub-categories may emerge. For example, through the course of this research it becomes obvious that there are two distinct

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[41] *Ibid*, 15.

[42] External validity constitutes the degree to which the conclusions in a study can be generalised to other people, places or times. Trochim and Donnelly, *The Research Methods Knowledge Base,* 22.

[43] Will Gibson, *Thematic Analysis* (2006)*, http://www.ilit.org/air/files/thematic_analysis.doc,* 1.

[44] *Ibid.*

[45] Patricia Yancey Martin and Barry A. Turner, "Grounded Theory and Organizational Research," *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* 22, no. 2 (1986): 142.

[46] Trochim and Donnelly, *The Research Methods Knowledge Base,* 17.

categories of economic benefits sought from internationalisation: direct economic benefits, and the more general and long-term benefits. In terms of categories, to identify the rationales driving the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, it is also important to analyse the activities these policies are designed to stimulate. These can be grouped into two broad categories: internationalisation abroad and at home. These have also been identified in previous research and are elaborated on more in chapter two, but again it is important to acknowledge that they must be open to adaptation and that they can be broken down into more specific sub-categories. For example, internationalisation abroad can involve student mobility, as well as the international mobility of academic staff and researchers, while different categories of student mobility can also be distinguished. Finally, two general approaches to internationalisation can be identified in national policies and also constitute important categories for the purposes of this research: cooperation and competition. Overall, applying and combining the data sources and methods of measurement detailed above, then coding the data obtained into these categories enables the best approximation of what rationales drive the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand.

Chapter Two

The Internationalisation of Higher Education: Its Historical Context, the Current Global Situation and Previous Research

2.1.   Introduction

This chapter develops a more detailed understanding of the internationalisation of higher education. It begins by looking at its historical context, before moving onto the current global situation where it discusses the internationalisation of higher education today, recent developments in Europe and changes in the international context, specifically the establishment of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) and the inclusion of higher education in this agreement. It is assumed that these broader contextual factors have an effect on the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand. This chapter then ends by discussing previous research on the internationalisation of higher education relevant to this thesis.

2.2.   The historical context

It is important to recognise that higher education constitutes more than simply university education. However, the term is certainly most synonymous with university education, and historically the university constitutes the first and until recently, the main form of institutionalised higher education. This thesis is also interested in leading to further and more general research, particularly that linked to the idea of the modern university in New Zealand. Therefore, this section, which intends to set the scene with respect to the historical context of the internationalisation of higher education, speaks of the university, rather than higher education more generally. It is claimed that the university has always been an international institution. This widely accepted statement is generally made with reference to the birth of the university in medieval Europe, and the prevalence of wandering students on the roads of Europe up until the end of the eighteenth century. On the other hand, Scott talks of the myth of the international university, arguing that "most universities are not ancient institutions with links that go back unbroken to the Middle Ages."[47] He also argues that the universities of medieval

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[47] Scott, "Massification, Internationalization and Globalization," in *The globalization of higher education*, 110.

Europe could not have been international because internationalisation presupposes the existence of nation-states.[48]

It is certainly true that the university has always been an international institution in the sense that student mobility was widespread from the time of the first universities until the end of the eighteenth century. The use of Latin as a common language and of a uniform programme of study and system of examinations allowed mobility between the early universities of Europe.[49] However, the prevalence of student mobility until the end of the eighteenth century certainly did not constitute internationalisation as far as present definitions are concerned, such as that used for the purposes of this thesis, which generally require more than the mere existence of student mobility. Nevertheless, this thesis now returns to the origins of the university to provide perspective in terms of the current internationalisation of higher education.

2.2.1. The origins of the university in medieval Europe

A History of the University in Europe, edited by Walter Ruegg and published in four volumes between 1992 and 2004 constitutes only the second attempt to document the comparative history of the university in Europe. Its only precursor, *Die Geschichte der Enstehung und Entwicklung der hohen Schulen unseres Erdtheils*, written by Christian Meiners and also comprising four volumes, published between 1802 and 1805 is described as resting on a wide-ranging, but ultimately uncritical use of older monographs.[50] According to Hastings Rashdell it, "long remained the only modern work on this subject as a whole, and that a completely uncritical one."[51] Ruegg notes that "it was only after the critical assessment of the sources towards the end of the nineteenth century that it was possible to begin to write the history of the medieval universities in a genuinely scholarly way."[52] From this time several major works have contributed to the understanding of the origins of the university in medieval Europe.[53] It remains difficult to assign an exact date, but it is widely agreed that the birth of the university, can be

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[48] *Ibid.*

[49] Hilde de Ridder-Symoens, "Mobility," in *A History of the University in Europe: Universities in the Middle Ages*, ed. Walter Ruegg, vol. 1 (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992), 302-303.

[50] Walter Ruegg, "Foreword," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 1 (see note 49), xxiii.

[51] Hastings Rashdell, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, ed. F.M. Powicke and A.B. Emden, vol. 1 (London: Oxford University Press, 1936), 1.

[52] Ruegg, "Foreword," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 1, xxiii.

[53] These works include: *Die Entstehung der Universitaten des Mittelalters bis 1400* by H. Denifile first published in 1885; *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages* by Hastings Rashdell first published in 1895 and revised in 1936 by Powicke and Emden; *The Rise of the Universities* by Charles Homer Haskins published in 1923; *Histoire des universites francaises et etrangeres des origines a nos jours* by Stephen d'Irsay published between 1933 and 1935; and more recently, *The First Universities: Studium Generale and the Origins of University Education in Europe* by Olaf Pedersen published in 1997; and *A History of the University in Europe* itself, edited by Walter Ruegg and published in four volumes between 1992 and 2004.

attributed to the emergence of two universities in Europe during the last thirty years of the twelfth century: Bologna and Paris.[54]

The universities of Bologna and Paris were very different from each other. Bologna constituted a university of students, the teachers simply being hired through annual contracts. Paris constituted a university of masters and students, where only the masters were considered fully-fledged members.[55] Nevertheless, despite their differences, as Rashdell asserts, "every later university from that day to this is in its developed form a more or less imitation of one or the other of these two types."[56] The two great parent universities are a product of the Renaissance of the twelfth century, a period Rashdell described as, "that wonderful deepening and broadening of the stream of human culture."[57] The university is a European institution, like cathedrals and parliaments it is the product of medieval Europe.[58] Higher education had certainly existed previously, and it is important to acknowledge educational developments in antiquity when discussing the origins of universities.[59] However, as Haskins notes:

> The Greeks and Romans, strange as it may seem, had no universities…
> They had higher education, but the terms are not synonymous. Much of
> their instruction in law, rhetoric, and philosophy it would be hard to
> surpass, but it was not organised into the form of permanent institutions
> of learning. A great teacher like Socrates gave no diplomas.[60]

As discussed by Olaf Pedersen, the ancient civilisations of Egypt, Babylonia, Greece and Rome laid the foundations.[61] However, it was Europe that institutionalised the concept of higher education for the first time between the twelfth and thirteenth centuries in the form of what is now called the university. According to Pedersen, strong economic and political changes following the first millennium ensured that medieval society began to place increased importance on knowledge and the need for education.[62] Pedersen notes that "after the monasteries failed in this respect, cathedral schools sought to meet the

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[54] Jacques Verger, "Patterns," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 1 (see note 49). Rashdell, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, vol. 1. Charles Homer Haskins, *The Rise of Universities* (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1965). It is important to recognise that many other important schools did exist and that there are competing claims for the title of first university, but while many went onto become universities later, it is widely agreed that unlike Bologna and Paris these schools did not possess all of the features necessary to be deemed universities at the time.

[55] Verger, "Patterns," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 1, 38.

[56] Rashdell, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, vol. 1, 17.

[57] *Ibid*, 17-18.

[58] Haskins, *The Rise of Universities*, 3.

[59] Olaf Pedersen, *The First Universities: Studium Generale and the Origins of University Education in Europe* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997), 1-28.

[60] Haskins, *The Rise of Universities*, 3.

[61] Pedersen, *The First Universities*, 1-28.

[62] *Ibid*, 92-121.

demand."[63] According to C. Warren Hollister and Judith M. Bennett, "both cathedral schools and [semi-secular] municipal schools had long existed, but only in the eleventh and twelfth centuries did they rise to prominence."[64] Many became centres of higher learning and as Hollister and Bennett note, "their enrolments increased and their faculties grew until, in the latter twelfth century and after, some of them evolved into universities."[65] By the end of the thirteenth century, eighteen *studia generalia* had emerged in total.[66] Some of these were short-lived, others were of local influence only, while a number flourished and continue to exist today.[67] Verger notes that by 1300:

> The Universities, although still few in number, had become institutions of central importance in European cultural life, places dedicated to the production and diffusion of ideas, indeed, even sites of genuine 'intellectual power', as well as for the training of ecclesiastical or civil elites.[68]

It should, however, be acknowledged that as Hollister and Bennett write, "universities served only a limited sector of the medieval population."[69] Women were excluded from universities until the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and of the men, it was generally only those with wealth that could afford to attend.[70]

The term *studium generale* was coined to describe the first universities, but the term *universitas* increasingly became more common. *Universitas* was an abstract Latin word meaning "totality" or "the whole" which had become a general term in medieval language to describe all kinds of communities.[71] Rashdell confirms that "by the fifteenth century the original distinction between the two terms was pretty generally lost; and *universitas* gradually became a mere synonym for *studium generale*."[72] Today, the term university is used without need for further qualification. Despite vast differences between the medieval institutions of Bologna and Paris, and the plethora of universities that exist across the world today, the key features remain. These are, in the words of Haskins, "those features of organised education with which we are most familiar, all that

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[63] *Ibid*, 121.

[64] C. Warren Hollister and Judith M. Bennett, *Medieval Europe: A Short History*, 9th ed. (Boston: McGraw-Hill, 2002), 249.

[65] *Ibid*.

[66] Angers, Arezzo, Bologna, Cambridge, Lisbon, Montpellier, Naples, Orleans, Oxford, Padua, Paris, Salamanca, Siena, *Studium* of the Roman Curia, Toulouse, Valladolid, Vercelli, Vincenza. The number would be 23 if the disputed cases of Palencia, Piacenza, Reggio, Salerno and Seville are included. Verger, "Patterns," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 1, 47-55.

[67] Haskins, *The Rise of Universities*, 29-30.

[68] Verger, "Patterns," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 1, 55.

[69] Hollister and Bennett, *Medieval Europe: A Short History*, 250.

[70] *Ibid*.

[71] Verger, "Patterns," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 1, 37.

[72] Rashdell, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, vol. 1, 17.

machinery of instruction represented by faculties and colleges and courses of study, examinations and commencements and academic degrees."[73]

2.2.2. Student mobility

The importance of student mobility between the early universities of Europe has been acknowledged in many places, but *A History of the University in Europe* is one of the only works to discuss it comprehensively. According to Hilde de Ridder-Symeons, "medieval men loved to travel. It mattered little that roads were few and that they could go only on foot or on horseback, by cart or by boat."[74] Student mobility was widespread between the first universities of Europe. During this time and until the end of the eighteenth century, the sight of students and professors on the roads of Europe was commonplace. As De Ridder-Symeons describes, "their pilgrimage (peregrinato) was not to Christ's or a saint's tomb, but to a university city where they hoped to find learning, friends, and leisure."[75] The use of Latin as a common language and of a uniform programme of study and system of examinations allowed mobility between the early universities of Europe.[76] European universities continued to be organised in much the same way as one another until the early nineteenth century. Indeed, their systems and structures converged to such a point that Jean Jacques Rousseau stated in 1772 that:

> Today there are no longer any French, Germans, Spanish or even English,
> in spite of what they say: there are only Europeans. They all have the
> same tastes, the same passions, the same morals, because none of them
> has received a national moulding from a particular institution.[77]

Nevertheless, this convergence of systems and structures enabled student mobility. Despite fluctuations and changes in its pattern, student mobility between the universities of Europe remained widespread until the end of the eighteenth century.

2.2.3. Patterns of student mobility

By the fifteenth century, when large numbers of universities flourished in Europe and indifference to the plight of poor students was significant,[78] the incentive to study abroad had lessened. The preference to study at the nearest university became more general and universities became increasingly regionalised. This phenomenon was further influenced by the Great Schism of 1378-1417 whereby western Christendom split into two opposing camps, one of them supporting the Pope in Rome, Urban VI, the other the

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[73] Haskins, *The Rise of Universities*, 4.
[74] De Ridder-Symoens, "Mobility," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 1, 280.
[75] *Ibid.*
[76] *Ibid,* 302-303.
[77] Walter Ruegg, "Themes," in *A History of the University in Europe: Universities in the Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Centuries (1800-1945)*, ed. Walter Ruegg, vol. 3 (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004), 4.
[78] De Ridder-Symoens, "Mobility," in *A History of the University in Europe,* vol. 1, 285-288.

Pope in Avignon, Clement VII.[79] As a consequence, states and universities were obliged to support one or the other. De Ridder-Symeons notes that universities became regionalised to such an extent "that in the fifteenth century external migration actually came to a halt."[80]

Despite the trend towards regionalism, by 1500 the number of students in European universities had increased and, under the influence of humanism,[81] the academic pilgrimage began to regain its old popularity. There were certainly very few poor students on the roads of Europe, but encouraged by the new humanist ideas in teaching, students from the bourgeoisie and gentry flocked to universities throughout Europe.[82] A period of study abroad was in the words of De Ridder-Symeons, seen as "the culmination of the humanist education of young members of the elite."[83] The humanist desire to search for the sources of knowledge and culture ensured that student mobility reached both its absolute and relative peak in the latter half of the sixteenth century and first half of the seventeenth century.[84]

From the mid-sixteenth century the Reformation and Counter-Reformation began to influence the pattern of student mobility. The saying *cujus regio, eius religio* (let each country follow its ruler's religion) increasingly affected a student's choice of universities.[85] Foreign universities came to be considered a source of religious and political contamination, and rulers introduced legislation which prohibited study abroad.[86] Initially, these restrictions were not effectively enforced and enthusiastic students continued to seek learning at the university of their choice.[87] However, by the beginning of the seventeenth century the consequences of this restrictive legislation were beginning to redefine the pattern of student movement.[88] The Reformation and Counter-Reformation produced three specific types of university, which influenced where a student might study; Protestant, Catholic, and those that adopted a tolerant attitude.[89] Student migration continued. Indeed, universities became places of refuge for people

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[79] *Ibid,* 288.

[80] *Ibid*, 287.

[81] Humanism is an intellectual movement that emerged in the late fourteenth century. It was based on the revival of the study of classical Latin and Greek texts in their original form, rather than relying on the interpretations of others. In doing this, humanism challenged the status quo and constituted a new confidence in the ability of human beings to determine their own meaning from these texts. Well-known Humanists included Desiderius Erasmus Roterodamus, Niccolo Machiavelli, Sir Thomas More and Martin Luther.

[82] Hilde de Ridder-Symoens, "Mobility," in *A History of the University in Europe: Universities in Early Modern Europe (1500-1800)*, ed. Walter Ruegg, vol. 2 (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996) 431.

[83] *Ibid*, 417.

[84] *Ibid*.

[85] *Ibid,* 419.

[86] *Ibid*.

[87] *Ibid*, 420.

[88] *Ibid*.

[89] *Ibid*, 421.

fleeing their country of origin in search of people of their own religion in a new country.[90] However, the choices of universities that a student had were certainly restricted by religion.

By the end of the seventeenth century and the dawn of the age of Enlightenment,[91] the official religion of a university had become less important.[92] Certain restrictions remained, but these were influenced more by a fear of political or financial implications.[93] Nevertheless, the trend of going abroad to take a degree gradually began to die out in the eighteenth century as, although the Enlightenment encouraged student mobility to some extent, the idea of utility began to take precedence.[94] Student mobility still existed, but a period of study abroad was no longer seen as beneficial in itself and foreign universities were generally only sought where there were no adequate training facilities at home to pursue ones career.[95] As such, De Ridder-Symeons notes that "mobility was mainly internal and confined to a few centres giving a modern education suitable for the needs of enlightened states."[96] When travel did occur, increasingly it was not for educational purposes. The fashionable Grand Tour[97] which flourished in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, whereby young noblemen travelled in Europe as a culmination of their education became more about the pursuit of pleasure, as opposed to the pursuit of knowledge and learning.[98] Students studied overseas where necessary, but by the eighteenth century young noblemen no longer flocked to universities abroad as part of their Grand Tour.

The comprehensive discussion of student mobility in *A History of the University in Europe* shows that its pattern did fluctuate; nevertheless student mobility remained widespread until the end of the eighteenth century. It is impossible to quote figures, but the incomplete data available confirms that student mobility was an important component of

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[90] *Ibid*, 428.
[91] The Enlightenment was an intellectual movement that emerged in the eighteenth century and which advocated reason as the primary basis for authority. It sought greater rights for common people, including the right to self-governance and questioned the legitimacy of authoritarian institutions such as the nobility and the Church. Important figures included Immanuel Kant, John Locke, Voltaire, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson.
[92] De Ridder-Symoens, "Mobility," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 2, 436.
[93] *Ibid*, 437.
[94] *Ibid*, 436.
[95] *Ibid*.
[96] *Ibid*, 439.
[97] According to the Oxford English Dictionary, the term Grand Tour was first coined by the Roman Catholic priest and travel writer, Richard Lassels in *The Voyage of Italy* published posthumously in Paris in 1670.
Oxford English Dictionary, s.v. "Grand Tour," *http://dictionary.oed.com.ezproxy.canterbury.ac.nz/cgi/entry/ 50097818?query_type=word&queryword=grand+tour&first=1&max_to_show=10&sort_type=alpha&result_pla ce =1&search_id=7Fwz-vjm6ax-4426&hilite=50097818*.
[98] De Ridder-Symoens, "Mobility," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 2, 436.

university life up until this time.[99] Kaniewska has calculated that approximately 20 percent of Polish students between 1510 and 1560 attended foreign universities.[100] It is estimated that at least 10 percent of all graduates from the Northern Netherlands between 1575 and 1814 studied at foreign universities, and that up until about 1600, 15 percent of students from the Southern Netherlands studied abroad.[101] Nilehn calculated that at the beginning of the seventeenth century, four-fifths of all Swedish students had studied abroad.[102] By the end of the century, that proportion had fallen to around 10 percent.[103] In spite of primitive transport systems, unsafe roads and other barriers, student mobility was widespread until the end of the eighteenth century.

However, as mentioned previously in this chapter, the prevalence of student mobility until the end of the eighteenth century certainly did not constitute internationalisation in terms of present definitions. The purpose was not to integrate an international or intercultural dimension into the core functions of the institution. As De Wit notes, student mobility was "more incidental, than structured and strategic"[104] constituting primarily vertical movement necessary to access study provisions superior to those at home or not available at home. This situation remained until the twentieth century. However, the need to seek learning abroad lessened from the end of the eighteenth century, while at the same time new barriers to student mobility transpired, reducing the overall level of student mobility.

2.2.4. The decline of student mobility

In the early nineteenth century, a new model of university emerged. Based on the ideas of Wilhelm von Humboldt and represented in the founding of the University of Berlin in 1810, the German model came to represent the modern university.[105] It was copied throughout the whole of Europe and beyond. The total number of universities increased significantly. In 1789 there were 143 universities in Europe, while in 1815 there were only 83.[106] This number increased to 98 by the middle of the nineteenth century, and by 1939 it had more than doubled with around 200 universities existing across Europe.[107]

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[99] *Ibid*, 440-441.

[100] *Ibid*, 441.

[101] *Ibid*.

[102] *Ibid*.

[103] *Ibid*.

[104] De Wit, *Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 9.

[105] Ruegg, "Themes," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 3, 6.

[106] This decline can be attributed to the French Revolution and the rise of the Napoleonic Empire. A new French university system emerged in the first half of the nineteenth century based on the abolition of traditional universities and the creation of specialised colleges known as Grande Écoles. The 24 French universities of the time were abolished, while Napoleon's conquests ensured that universities disappeared throughout Europe. While Grande Écoles still operate in France separately from the public university system, the influence of this new French system eroded with the emergence of the German model. *Ibid*, 3-6.

[107] *Ibid*, 3.

During this period, a significant number of universities were also established outside Europe, including in the British colony of New Zealand. Although universities had already been established outside Europe, most notably Harvard University which was founded in 1636 and is the oldest higher education institution in the United States, De Wit notes that "even higher education in the United States, often regarded today as the dominant model in international developments of higher education, was based on European influences and continued to reflect these for a long time."[108] The proliferation of the modern university in Europe and beyond from the middle of the nineteenth century had significant implications for student mobility. Not only did the need to seek learning abroad lessen, but new barriers also grew against it.

As Bill Readings asserts, the widely copied German model "was conceived by Humboldt as one of the primary apparatuses through which [the] production of national subjects was to take place in modernity."[109] Readings notes that "the story begins, as do so many stories about modernity, with Kant, who envisioned the University as guided by the concept of *reason*. Kant's vision was followed by Humboldt's idea of culture."[110] According to Readings, the modern university as envisioned by Humboldt, should fulfil an important, albeit indirect, social function. Indirect meant that the modern university was to be based upon the principle of academic freedom and as such, the state should only intervene to protect this freedom. The benefit of the university to the state was not intended to be the direct one of utility; it was not designed to produce servants of the state, but instead to serve the needs of society as a whole. Humboldt's model placed importance on research or the production of knowledge as a key function of the modern university, alongside teaching or its dissemination and acquisition.[111] In this sense, the knowledge functions of the university were intended to carry a critical function and the idea of the modern university was based upon the principle of *bildung,* whereby knowledge acquisition is not merely a product or an end in itself, but instead a process achieved through research and essential to defining national culture in the case of the modern university.[112] This national cultural mission was the *raison d'etre* of the modern university.[113]

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[108] De Wit, *Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 8.

[109] Bill Readings, *The University in Ruins* (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 1996), 46.

[110] *Ibid*, 54.

[111] Michael Peters and Peter Roberts, *University Futures and the Politics of Reform in New Zealand* (Palmerston North: Dunmore Press, 1999), 126.

[112] Readings, *The University in Ruins,* 62-88.

[113] *Ibid*, 3.

However, as Roger King notes, "universities provided the rulers of the industrialising capitalist states of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries."[114] While the role of the university was not to simply transmit upon this future ruling class an idea of national culture, and while the principle of academic freedom persists to this day, the systems and structures of universities began to differ among states as they, perhaps inevitably, became increasingly influenced by individual, often competing state interests and internal government regulations. King adds that:

> During the course of the twentieth century we witnessed the growth of national higher education systems, fuelled by larger proportions of public funding, as part of the aim to secure wider citizenship and social welfare, and, increasingly, supporting the goal of achieving national economic competitiveness in knowledge-based, globalizing capitalism.[115]

Although student mobility persisted, not only did the need to seek learning abroad lessen, but whereas the existence of a common language and uniform programme of study facilitated mobility between the early universities of Europe, this divergence of systems and structures in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries created new barriers to it. As Teichler notes, "the more regulated education became, the more the barriers grew against mobility."[116]

Knight and De Wit note that we can be sure student mobility never completely came to an end.[117] Nevertheless, there was certainly a decline and they describe the export of higher education systems as the most important form of internationalisation in the period between the eighteenth century and World War II.[118] According to Knight and De Wit, the second most important international element of higher education during this period was academic cooperation, particularly in the areas of research and publications. They note that "although much of the research in this period had a national focus and interest, the international exchange of ideas and information, through seminars, conferences and publications, remained a constant factor of international scholarly contact."[119] Indeed, Christophe Charle notes that despite this period ending with the most horrendous perversions of nationalism, one should not ignore the emergence of an

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[114] Roger King, "The University and the Regulatory State," in *The University in the Global Age*, ed. Roger King (Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 2004), 67.

[115] *Ibid*, 68.

[116] Ulrich Teichler*,* "Mutual Recognition and Credit Transfer," *Journal of Studies in International Education* 7, no. 4 (2003): 313.

[117] Jane Knight and Hans de Wit, "Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: historical and conceptual perspectives," in *Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: a comparative study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America*, ed. Hans de Wit (Amsterdam: European Association for International Education, 1995), 8.

[118] *Ibid*, 7.

[119] *Ibid.*

invisible university - in this sense one which transcended national frontiers.[120] Meanwhile, Knight and De Wit hold that "to a certain extent one can say that... for most academics, international contacts in research have always been and still are the main, albeit not the only, reference when asked about the need for internationalisation of higher education."[121]

2.3. The current global situation

2.3.1. The internationalisation of higher education today

Despite a period of decline from the end of the eighteenth century, student mobility persisted and since World War II, it has undoubtedly been the main activity associated with the internationalisation of higher education and today it is an important component of the ever-increasing emphasis which is placed on the international dimension in higher education. As Baiba Rivza and Teichler note:

> Increasing student mobility tends to be viewed in debates on the developments of higher education at first glance as one of the most obvious trends in higher education as well as one of the most undisputed positive goals of higher education policy.[122]

As discussed in the preceding section, student mobility has always existed and, indeed, it was widespread between the time of the first universities and the end of the eighteenth century. However, as was also mentioned, the prevalence of student mobility until the end of the eighteenth century did not constitute internationalisation in terms of present definitions which acknowledge that the internationalisation of higher education is an active strategy, a dynamic process of integrating an international dimension into the core functions of the institution, not simply the existence of a set of isolated international activities. This is an important distinction when considering the current internationalisation of higher education as compared with the traditional existence of student mobility.

The mere existence of student mobility does not constitute internationalisation. Despite the prevalence of student mobility until the end of the eighteenth century, as discussed previously in this chapter, the purpose was not to integrate an international or intercultural dimension into the core functions of the institution. Traditionally, student mobility was not necessarily structured and strategic, but more incidental.[123] It was

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[120] Christophe Charle, "Patterns," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 3 (see note 77), 74-75.
[121] Knight and De Wit, "Strategies for internationalisation of higher education," in *Strategies for internationalisation of higher education,* 7.
[122] Baiba Rivza and Ulrich Teichler, "The Changing Role of Student Mobility," *Higher Education Policy* 20, no. 4 (2007): 457-458.
[123] De Wit, *Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 9.

clearly a vertical phenomenon. However, this has changed, along with the reasons for being mobile, from a primarily vertical movement necessary to access study provisions superior to those at home or not available at home, to an increasingly horizontal and/or temporary movement undertaken to widen one's horizon by experiencing a different culture and academic environment.[124] The experience of spending a period of study abroad has changed from a marginal, add-on benefit to an end in itself. As a report entitled *International Student Mobility* by the Sussex Centre for Migration Research, University of Sussex, and the Centre for Applied Population Research, University of Dundee notes, this reflects increasing "recognition by some countries of the value of international awareness among students who are the professional and managerial classes of the future."[125] The 1998 report by UNESCO entitled *World Statistical Outlook on Higher Education: 1980-1995* agrees that countries have become increasingly interdependent, and that "governments and employers recognise that the workforce of the future must include well-trained, globally aware professionals if national, regional and individual prosperity is to be ensured."[126]

Within the above context facilitating increased student mobility became an important goal in higher education policy. This situation dates back to the end of World War II and it was the United States in particular that laid the foundation. Indeed, De Wit notes that international educational exchange expanded after World War II "first and foremost in the United States."[127] For example, the Fulbright programme was established in 1946 to promote international understanding through educational and cultural exchanges between the United States and other countries.[128] However, it has become more obvious in the past twenty years and many initiatives aimed at promoting temporary student mobility in particular have been implemented worldwide. Today, the promotion of student mobility constitutes an active strategy perhaps best illustrated by the establishment of various mobility programmes. Europe does appear to be leading the way in this sense, as is highlighted by the EU's establishment in 1987 of the Erasmus student mobility programme which is discussed in more detail later in this thesis. However, such programmes are not exclusive to Europe and it would be difficult to find a higher education institution anywhere in the world today that does not have some kind of formal international exchange programme.

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[124] Rivza and Teichler, "The Changing Role of Student Mobility," *Higher Education Policy,* 458.

[125] Sussex Centre for Migration Research, University of Sussex, and the Centre for Applied Population Research, University of Dundee, *International Student Mobility* (2004), *http://www.hefce.ac.uk/pubs/hefce/2004/04_30/04_30.pdf*, 12.

[126] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, *World Statistical Outlook on Higher Education: 1980-1995* (1998), *http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0011/001136/113601eo.pdf,* 19.

[127] De Wit, *Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 10.

[128] Institute of International Education, *The Fulbright Program, http://www.fulbrightonline.org/*.

Basic data on student mobility is published by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). This is by no means comprehensive, but as can be seen in Tables 2.1 and 2.2 on pages 28 and 29 respectively, the data available does suggest that student mobility has grown over the past 20 years. Although as these tables do show, not all countries listed display this trend with either outgoing or incoming student numbers actually decreasing in some countries, while it is also important to acknowledge that different categories of student mobility exist, including, but not limited to temporary mobility. These different categories are discussed below. Nevertheless, facilitating increased student mobility generally continues to be an important goal in higher education policy and it is within this context that another European initiative, the Bologna Process was initiated. The Bologna Process constitutes a commitment by 46 European countries[129] to harmonise their systems and structures of higher education in order to create an integrated European higher education area by 2010.

Today, student mobility remains the main activity associated with the internationalisation of higher education and it is certainly an important component of the ever-increasing emphasis which is placed on the international dimension in higher education. As Bernd Wächter notes, "student mobility… has been in the past and still is today the most dominant international activity in higher education."[130] Nevertheless, Luijten-Lub, Van der Wende, and Jeroen Huisman note that despite student mobility being mainly what was meant when the internationalisation of higher education was discussed until recently, the discussion has started to broaden.[131] Indeed, while student mobility remains the main activity associated with the internationalisation of higher education today, it is not the only activity. Knight summarises that internationalisation activities generally fall into two different streams: "those that happen abroad or, in other words, across borders"[132] and those "that occur on the home campus."[133] Knight notes that "the term *cross-border education*, which is used to describe internationalization

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[129] Albania, Andorra, Armenia, **Austria**, Azerbaijan, **Belgium**, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, **Cyprus**, **Czech Republic**, **Denmark**, **Estonia**, **Finland**, **France**, Georgia, **Germany**, **Greece**, Holy See, **Hungary**, Iceland, **Ireland**, **Italy**, **Latvia**, Liechtenstein, **Lithuania**, **Luxembourg**, **Malta,** Moldova, Montenegro, **Netherlands**, Norway, **Poland, Portugal**, Romania, Russian Federation, Serbia, **Slovak Republic, Slovenia**, **Spain, Sweden,** Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, **United Kingdom**, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (EU countries in bold).

[130] Wächter, Ollikainen, and Hasewend, "Internationalisation of Higher Education," in *Internationalisation in Higher Education*, 25.

[131] Anneke Luijten-Lub, Marijk van der Wende, and Jeroen Huisman, "On Cooperation and Competition: A Comparative Analysis of National Policies for Internationalisation of Higher Education in Seven Western European Countries," *Journal of Studies in International Education* 9, no. 2 (2005): 153.

[132] Jane Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled: Definition, Approaches and Rationales*," Journal of Studies in International Education* 8, no. 1 (2004): 16.

[133] *Ibid*.

abroad is starting to be used as a synonym for *internationalization.*"[134] This neglects the at home component. Before discussing this component, it is worth mentioning that in terms of those activities that happen across borders, there are different categories of student mobility that can be distinguished. It is also worth mentioning that in addition to student mobility, the international mobility of academic staff and researchers has always been and continues to be an important element of higher education.

With respect to student mobility, the HEIGLO project identified several distinct categories of mobile students. Apart from exchange students who remain registered with their home university, but spend a study period at a university in another country, it also identifies the "free movers who register for the whole of a degree (or other) programme at a university outside their home country."[135] While *horizontal mobility* is increasingly popular and, as was discussed above, many initiatives have been implemented worldwide with the aim of promoting temporary student mobility in this sense, *On Cooperation and Competition* notes that "over four times more of the student mobility in Europe takes place outside this framework (free movers)."[136] Within this context, the more traditional *vertical mobility* also still exists. This is driven by increased demand for higher and adult education in most countries due to the growth of the knowledge economy, the increased emphasis that is given to lifelong learning and changing demographics.[137] Meanwhile, Knight notes that the capacity of the public sector to satisfy this increased demand is being challenged owing "to budget limitations, the changing role of government, and increased emphasis on market economy and privatization."[138] Subsequently, many students turn to foreign providers and a strong emphasis is increasingly placed on the trade in education services. Indeed, as is discussed in more detail throughout this thesis, for many countries attracting foreign fee paying students for economic purposes is now a key internationalisation activity. Linked to this, the provision of transnational education through the establishment of university campuses abroad, franchised courses or distance learning has also become popular and as such, another category of mobility - *virtual mobility* - has expanded rapidly during recent years. This refers to the increasing number of non-mobile students who according to the HEIGLO project "remain physically in their own country and study for a degree enrolled at a foreign university."[139]

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[134] *Ibid*, 17.
[135] Luijten-Lub and others, "International Comparative Analysis," in *On Cooperation and Competition* (see note 11), 260.
[136] *Ibid.*
[137] Jane Knight, *Trade in Higher Education Services: The Implications of GATS* (2002)*, http://www.unesco.org/ education/studyingabroad/highlights/global_forum/gats_he/jk_trade_he_gats_implications.pdf*, 2.
[138] *Ibid.*
[139] Luijten-Lub and others, "International Comparative Analysis," in *On Cooperation and Competition*, 260.

Table 2.1: Total Number of Foreign Students in Selected Countries, 1985 and 1995 or the Latest Years Available[140]

Host Country	Year	Total Number	Year	Total Number
Australia[1]	1985	16,075	1995	47,834
Austria	1985	15,388	1995	26,883
Belgium	1985	24,761	1995	34,966
Canada[2]	1985	29,496	1995	31,435
Czech Republic	1990	3,122	1994	2,836
Denmark	1985	3,167	1995	8,982
Finland	1985	979	1994	2,588
France	1985	131,979	1995	130,431
Germany	1990	107,005	1995	159,894
Greece	1982	6,683	1991	1,513
Hungary	1985	2,485	1994	6,399
Ireland	1985	2,606	1995	5,794
Italy	1985	26,268	1995	22,369
Japan	1985	12,442	1995	53,847
Korea, Republic of	1985	978	1995	1,983
Netherlands[2]	1985	4,171	1995	6,858
New Zealand	1985	2,618	1995	5,883
Norway	1985	–	1995	11,225
Poland	1985	2,986	1995	5,202
Portugal	1985	2,047	1994	6,140
Slovakia	1985	–	1995	1,797
Spain	1985	–	1994	21,403
Sweden	1984	10,401	1995	11,402
Switzerland	1985	17,396	1995	24,093
Turkey	1985	7,021	1994	14,719
United Kingdom	1985	53,694	1995	197,188
United States	1985	343,780	1995	453,787

[1] Data refer to universities and degree-granting institutions only.

[2] Data refer to universities only.

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[140] The countries selected for this table represent OECD countries amongst the top 50 host countries of foreign students according to the original UNESCO table on which this table is based. To view the original table see: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, *World Statistical Outlook on Higher Education: 1980-1995*, 58.

Table 2.2: Proportion of Foreign Students Relative to the Total Number of Higher Education Enrolments in OECD Countries, 1998 and 2003[141]

OECD Country	Year	Proportion (%)	Year	Proportion (%)
Australia	1998	12.6	2003	18.7
Austria	1998	11.5	2003	13.5
Belgium	1998	–	2003	11.2
Canada	1998	2.8	2003	–
Czech Republic	1998	1.9	2003	4.3
Denmark	1998	6.0	2003	9.0
Finland	1998	1.7	2003	2.5
France	1998	7.3	2003	10.5
Germany[1]	1998	8.2	2003	10.7
Greece	1998	–	2003	2.2
Hungary	1998	2.6	2003	3.1
Iceland	1998	2.4	2003	4.3
Ireland	1998	4.8	2003	5.6
Italy	1998	1.2	2003	1.9
Japan	1998	1.4	2003	2.2
Korea, Republic of	1998	0.1	2003	0.2
Luxembourg	1998	30.5	2003	–
Mexico	1998	–	2003	–
Netherlands[1]	1998	–	2003	3.9
New Zealand	1998	3.7	2003	13.5
Norway	1998	3.2	2003	5.2
Poland[1, 2]	1998	0.5	2003	0.4
Portugal	1998	–	2003	3.9
Slovak Republic	1998	–	2003	1.0
Spain	1998	1.7	2003	2.9
Sweden	1998	4.5	2003	7.8
Switzerland	1998	15.9	2003	17.7
Turkey[1]	1998	1.3	2003	0.8
United Kingdom	1998	10.8	2003	11.2
United States	1998	3.2	2003	3.5

[1] Excluding advanced research programmes.

[2] Excluding tertiary-type B programmes.

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[141] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2005* (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2005), 267.

With regard to internationalisation activities that occur on the home campus, Knight points out that:

> The term *internationalization at home* has been developed to bring attention to those aspects of internationalization which would happen on a home campus, namely, the intercultural and international dimension in the teaching learning process, the extracurricular activities, and the relationships with local cultural and ethnic community groups... The emergence of this concept has coincided with, or perhaps as away to counteract, the increased emphasis on student mobility as expressed in new national and regional mobility programs and also the growing interest in cross-border education.[142]

Internationalisation at home is the product of an article presented in 1999 by Bengt Nilsson who had just left his post as the Director of the International Relations Office at Lund University to become Vice-President for International Affairs at the newly founded university in Malmö, Sweden. Wächter notes that in Lund, the focus had been on student mobility, but in Malmö, Nilsson decided to go down the altogether different avenue of internationalisation at home.[143]

According to Wachter:

> It had become clear to Nilsson (and to many others in the international higher education business) that even the rather modest aim of the initial Erasmus Programme – to enable every 10th student to spend a study period in another European country – could not be attained. This failure called for a new approach: to "internationalise" the education of that vast majority of higher education students who would never leave their home country.[144]

The development of the concept of internationalisation at home also questioned the capacity of student mobility to fulfil the expected outcome of intercultural learning on its own. Matthias Otten points out that:

> Despite the ideals of international exchange programmes, it can be observed that after a certain time abroad, many international students group in their national communities or in a kind of international reservations, for example, the so-called *Erasmus communities*, where European exchange students usually meet other European students but rarely those of the host country. At the same time, domestic students tend to stay in their established circle of friends.[145]

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[142] Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled*," Journal of Studies in International Education*, 17.

[143] Bernd Wächter, "An Introduction: Internationalisation at Home in Context*," Journal of Studies in International Education* 7, no. 1 (2003): 5.

[144] *Ibid*.

[145] Matthias Otten, "Intercultural Learning and Diversity in Higher Education*," Journal of Studies in International Education* 7, no. 1 (2003): 14.

In essence, the concept of internationalisation at home has been developed to supplement the limitations of student mobility. As Wächter has argued, "the importance and, indeed, dominance of student mobility is... underlined by the fact that this activity is very often considered an end in itself, and thus not perceived as in need of any justification"[146]. However, as Barbara Kehm and Teichler point out student mobility certainly has its limitations. He notes that:

> Despite all organisational and substantial accompanying measures, the support of physical mobility relies on the fact that the immersion into a foreign environment as such triggers important experiential learning… However, the genuine strengths of higher education lie in surpassing experiential learning by systematic learning set apart from daily life… It seems to be more important that higher education institutions strengthen international learning in their core activities of teaching, learning and research.[147]

The concept of internationalisation at home has been developed to fill this vacuum. Bengt Nilsson and other advocates of internationalisation at home have always shared a common set of assumptions, but at the same time, they have avoided setting too rigid a definition.[148] In general, the aim is to create a learning environment for all students, including non-mobile students to acquire international competences at home by incorporating an international dimension into the core activities of teaching, learning and research.[149]

2.3.2. The recent developments in Europe

It was mentioned in the introduction to this thesis that while internationalisation is not simply a European phenomenon, Europe is one of the leading forces in terms of the internationalisation of higher education. Europeanisation is an important contextual factor when considering the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand. Indeed, it is assumed that broader contextual factors, such as recent developments in Europe have an effect on the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand. This section outlines these

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[146] Wächter, Ollikainen, and Hasewend, "Internationalisation of Higher Education," in *Internationalisation in Higher Education*, 25.
[147] Barbara M. Kehm and Ulrich Teichler, "Research on Internationalisation in Higher Education," *Journal of Studies in International Education* 11, no. 3-4 (2007): 271.
[148] Wächter, "An Introduction: Internationalisation at Home in Context*," Journal of Studies in International Education,* 8.
[149] European Association for International Education, *Internationalisation at Home, http://www.eaie.org/IAH/.* For an example of how the concept of internationalisation at home has been applied in practise see: Bengt Nilsson, "Internationalisation at Home From a Swedish Perspective: The Case of Malmö," *Journal of Studies in International Education* 7, no. 1 (2003).

developments, especially the advent of the Bologna Process. However, it begins by discussing the Erasmus programme.

Despite the development of the concept of internationalisation at home, as was mentioned in the preceding section, student mobility remains the main activity associated with the internationalisation of higher education today. It has also been noted that horizontal student mobility is increasingly popular and that Europe does appear to be leading the way currently in terms of programmes aimed at promoting temporary student mobility in this sense. Named after the philosopher, theologian and renowned humanist Erasmus of Rotterdam (1465-1536), the Erasmus Programme established by the EU in 1987 represents one of the best-known organised student mobility programmes. Indeed, since its establishment more than 1.5 million European students have spent an Erasmus period abroad.[150] The Erasmus programme is now part of the EU's Lifelong Learning Programme 2007-2013 (formerly the Socrates programme).[151] It is accompanied by the Tempus programme which supports the mobility of students in neighbouring countries in the Western Balkans, Eastern Europe and Central Asia, North Africa and the Middle East,[152] while the Erasmus-Mundus programme supports the mobility of students globally. The Erasmus-Mundus programme funds a number of integrated study programmes at Masters-level offered by a consortium of at least three universities in a minimum of three different European countries and provides scholarships for students from third countries to participate.[153] The second phase of the Erasmus-Mundus programme (2009-2013) was approved in 2008 and new features will include the funding of joint doctoral programmes, more scholarships for European students and increasing structural cooperation with third-country higher education institutions.[154]

Nevertheless, despite the apparent success of the Erasmus programme and indeed, other organised exchange programmes around the world, facilitating increased student mobility does continue to be an important goal in higher education policy and as was

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[150] European Commission, *Timeseries Erasmus student mobility (number of outgoing students) 1987/88 - 2006/07, http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/doc/stat/table1.pdf*.

[151] For more information on the Lifelong Learning Programme see: European Commission, *A single umbrella for education and training programmes, http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc78 _en.htm.*

[152] For more information on the Tempus programme see: European Commission, *Tempus: Modernising higher education, http://ec.europa.eu/education/external-relation-programmes/doc70_en.htm.*

[153] Third countries constitute all countries of the world with the exception of the 27 EU Member States, the 3 EEA-EFTA states and the candidate countries for accession to the EU. For more information on the Erasmus Mundus programme see: European Commission, *Erasmus Mundus (2009-2013), http://ec.europa.eu/ education/external-relation-programmes/doc72_en.htm.*

[154] European Parliament, *Erasmus Mundus Programme (2009-2013), http://www.europarl.europa.eu/ sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2008-0497+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN&language=EN*.

also mentioned in the previous section, it is within this context that the Bologna Process was initiated. While the Erasmus programme represents an EU programme, the Bologna Process is not simply an EU initiative. It is an agreement signed between European countries and it is not exclusive to EU Member States. However, the EU does play an important supporting role. The Bologna Process has had significant implications globally and it signifies one of the foremost recent developments in terms of the internationalisation of higher education.

The Sorbonne Declaration signed by France, Germany, Italy and the UK on 25 May 1998 laid the foundation for the Bologna Process. It was then formally initiated on 19 June 1999 when 29 European countries signed the Bologna Declaration. Since the signing, regular bi-annual follow-up meetings have been held and communiqués released. The Prague Communiqué (2001), the Berlin Communiqué (2003), the Bergen Communiqué (2005), the London Communiqué (2007) and the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué (2009) have reaffirmed commitments, extended membership, and amended and added action lines.

As Table 2.3 on the following page shows, the Bologna Process is now made up of 10 action lines. Action lines 1-3 represent the major structural implications of the Bologna Process. The first action line relates specifically to the implementation of the Diploma Supplement. A Diploma Supplement is a document which accompanies higher education diplomas when awarded and which describes the nature, level, context, content and status of the studies that were successfully completed by the individual to attain the qualification for which they are being awarded a diploma. Meanwhile, to achieve consistency in terms of action lines two and three, major structural adjustments are often required, particularly in some countries. To date there has been reasonable success implementing the Bologna Process, but there is still significant work to be carried out. A Bologna Process stocktaking report released at the London 2007 follow-up meeting found that "there has been good progress in the Bologna Process since Bergen... [and] the outlook for achieving the goals of the Bologna Process by 2010 is good, but there are still challenges to be faced."[155] As Kenneth Edwards notes, "differences between countries are… considerable and represent major hurdles to the prospect for a European higher education area."[156] National systems certainly differ significantly between countries in several areas that are crucial to achieving

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[155] Bologna Follow-up Group: Stocktaking Working Group 2005-2007, *Bologna Process Stocktaking: London 2007* (2007), *http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/WGR2007/Stocktaking _report2007.pdf*, 1.

[156] Kenneth Edwards, "The University in Europe and the US," in *The University in the Global Age* (see note 114), 37.

harmonisation, while there are also major differences between institutions within countries.[157] Thus, Edwards claims that "it is too early to say whether the Bologna Declaration process will be successful."[158] The Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué recently conceded that since not all the objectives of the Bologna Process have been completely achieved, "the full and proper implementation of these objectives at European, national and institutional level will require increased momentum and commitment beyond 2010."[159] However, it reaffirmed commitment to the Bologna Process and that "the objectives set out by the Bologna Declaration and the policies developed in the subsequent years are still valid today."[160]

Table 2.3: Bologna Process Action Lines

Action Line	Established in the Bologna Declaration of 1999[161]
1	Adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees.
2	Adoption of a system essentially based on two cycles, since extended to three – Bachelors, Masters and Doctorate.
3	Establishment of a system of credits - the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS).
4	Promotion of mobility.
5	Promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance.
6	Promotion of the European dimension in higher education.
Action Line	Added after the Prague Ministerial summit of 2001[162]
7	Focus on lifelong learning.
8	Inclusion of higher education institutions and students in the process.
9	Promotion of the attractiveness of the European Higher Education Area.
Action Line	Added after the Berlin Ministerial summit of 2003[163]
10	Doctoral studies and the synergy between the European Higher Education Area and the European Research Area.

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[157] *Ibid*, 37, 38.
[158] *Ibid*, 38.
[159] Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, *The Bologna Process 2020 - The European Higher Education Area in the new decade: Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve, 28-29 April 2009* (2009), *http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/ hogeronderwijs/bologna/conference/documents/Leuven_Louvain-la-Neuve_Communiqué_April_2009.pdf*, 2.
[160] *Ibid.*
[161] Bologna Declaration, *The Bologna Declaration of 19 June 1999: Joint declaration of the European Ministers of Education* (1999), *http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/MDC/BOLOGNA _DECLARATION1.pdf*.
[162] Prague Communiqué, *Towards the European Higher Education Area: Communiqué of the Meeting of European Ministers in charge of Higher Education in Prague on May 19th 2001* (2001), *http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/ documents/MDC/PRAGUE_COMMUNIQUE.pdf.*
[163] Berlin Communiqué, *Realising the European Higher Education Area: Communiqué of the Conference of Ministers responsible for Higher Education in Berlin on 19 September 2003* (2003), *http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/MDC/Berlin_Communique1.pdf.*

The promotion of student mobility has been described as, "clearly the most concrete, easily interpreted and uncontroversial"[164] aim of the Bologna Process. Student mobility has always been at the core of the Bologna Process. The Sorbonne Declaration represented a commitment by the signatories to encourage "a common frame of reference, aimed at improving external recognition and facilitating student mobility as well as employability."[165] The declaration stated that:

> Universities were born in Europe, some three quarters of a millennium ago… In those times, students and academics would freely circulate and rapidly disseminate knowledge throughout the continent. Nowadays, too many of our students still graduate without having had the benefit of a study period outside of national boundaries.[166]

The importance of student mobility was confirmed in the London Communiqué, which stated that:

> Mobility of staff, students and graduates is one of the core elements of the Bologna Process, creating opportunities for personal growth, developing international cooperation between individuals and institutions, enhancing the quality of higher education and research, and giving substance to the European dimension.[167]

The promotion of student mobility is at the core of the Bologna Process and in pursuit of this objective, a strong emphasis has been placed on facilitating the recognition of qualifications. In Europe, measures aimed to facilitate the recognition of qualifications are not new. The Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications Concerning Higher Education in the European Region was signed in 1997 in Lisbon under the joint auspices of the Council of Europe and UNESCO. The Lisbon Convention represents the most ambitious attempt globally to facilitate the recognition of qualifications. It covers the recognition of qualifications giving access to higher education, holding that each party which accedes to it:

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[164] Sybille Reichert and Christian Tauch, *Trends 2003*: *Progress towards the European Higher Education Area* (2003), *http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/EUA_Trends_Reports/TRENDS_III-July2003.pdf*, 29.

[165] Sorbonne Declaration, *Joint declaration on harmonisation of the architecture of the European higher education system by the four Ministers in charge for France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom in Paris on May 25 1998* (1998), *http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/MDC/ SORBONNE_DECLARATION1.pdf,* 3.

[166] *Ibid,* 1.

[167] London Communiqué, *Towards the European Higher Education Area: Communiqué of the Conference of Ministers responsible for Higher Education in London on 18 May 2007* (2007), *http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/ hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/MDC/London_Communique18May2007.pdf,* 2.

> Shall recognise the qualifications issued by other Parties meeting the general requirements for access to higher education in those Parties for the purpose of access to programmes belonging to its higher education system, unless a substantial difference can be shown between the general requirements for access in the Party in which the qualification was obtained and in the Party which recognition of the qualification is sought.[168]

The Lisbon Convention also covers "periods of study completed within the framework of a higher education programme in another Party."[169] It holds that such periods of study shall be recognised "unless substantial differences can be shown."[170] It also covers the recognition of higher education qualifications, stating that:

> To the extent that a recognition decision is based on the knowledge and skills certified by the higher education qualification, each Party shall recognise the higher education qualifications conferred in another Party, unless a substantial difference can be shown between the qualification for which recognition is sought and the corresponding qualification in the Party in which recognition is sought.[171]

The Lisbon Convention extends beyond Europe with the United States and Canada being original signatories, although they have never actually ratified it. Israel is another original signatory and has recently ratified it, and Australia has since acceded to the Convention and also ratified it, while on 19 March 2008 New Zealand acceded too. In total, there are 48 countries that have ratified or acceded to the Lisbon Convention.[172]

The Lisbon Convention and its aim to facilitate the recognition of qualifications certainly align well with the Bologna Process and its core objective to promote student mobility. Student mobility remains the main activity associated with the internationalisation of higher education today and whereas the Erasmus programme is concerned primarily with the promotion of horizontal mobility, it is worth remembering that different categories of student mobility can be distinguished and within this context, the Bologna Process exists to facilitate student mobility more generally. The Bologna Process in particular has had significant implications globally and it undoubtedly signifies one of the foremost recent developments in terms of the internationalisation of higher education. Indeed, in New Zealand significant attention is being given to the reforms associated with the Bologna Process. This is illustrated by the release of a paper in 2008 by the Ministry of Education

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[168] Council of Europe, *Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region, http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/en/Treaties/Html/165.htm*, section IV.1.
[169] *Ibid,* section V.1.
[170] *Ibid.*
[171] *Ibid,* section VI.1.
[172] Council of Europe, *Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region: Chart of signatures and ratifications, http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/Commun/ QueVoulezVous.asp?NT=165&CL=ENG.*

and the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) entitled *New Zealand and the Bologna Process*.[173] This followed a Ministry of Education-hosted Bologna Day held in February 2007 where higher education representatives requested more information on the Bologna Process and how it relates to New Zealand. The paper was subsequently developed and then discussed at a second Bologna Day hosted by the Ministry of Education and NZQA in 2008. It notes that New Zealand's higher or tertiary education system is already largely comparable to the Bologna framework and outlines further work that has been undertaken recently to increase this level of comparability, holding that the Bologna Process provides an opportunity for New Zealand to increase the recognition of its qualifications.[174] Nevertheless, it also holds that the focus is not simply "on ensuring compliance with the Bologna Process, but on ensuring that comparability mechanisms allow New Zealand's tertiary education system to relate to all major international models."[175] At the same time, reference is also made to the importance of ensuring the New Zealand tertiary education system maintains its owns individual characteristics.[176]

2.3.3. Changes in the international context

Having set the scene with regard to the recent developments in Europe, this thesis now discusses changes in the international context more generally. This section focuses in particular on the establishment of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) and the inclusion of higher education in this agreement. As mentioned above, in terms of the internationalisation of higher education a strong emphasis is increasingly placed on the trade in education services and in this sense, the GATS is very relevant. The main objective of the GATS is to promote trade liberalisation through subsequent rounds of negotiations.[177] It builds on the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which was established in 1947 with a vision of reducing barriers to trade and which oversaw eight successive rounds of multilateral trade negotiations.[178] The Uruguay Round of negotiations, which began in 1986 and were eventually concluded in 1994, resulted in the establishment of the World Trade Organisation (WTO).[179] The WTO replaced the GATT as an international organisation. However, the GATT remained as the WTO's agreement for trade in goods. At the same time, the GATS was established to cover

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[173] New Zealand Ministry of Education and New Zealand Qualifications Authority, *New Zealand and the Bologna Process* (2008)*, http://www.minedu.govt.nz/~/media/MinEdu/Files/EducationSectors/InternationalEducation/ PolicyStrategy/NZandBologna.pdf.*
[174] *Ibid*, 3.
[175] *Ibid*, 4*.*
[176] *Ibid,* 3.
[177] Aleš Vlk, Don Westerheijden, and Marijk van der Wende, "GATS and the steering capacity of a nation state in higher education: Case studies of the Czech Republic and the Netherlands*," Globalisation, Societies & Education* 6, no. 1 (2008): 35.
[178] *Ibid*.
[179] *Ibid*.

trade in services and the Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property (TRIP) was also introduced to cover trade in intellectual property.[180]

The establishment of the GATS constituted a significant move towards the liberalisation of world trade in services and the inclusion of education services in it has been the source of much discussion, particularly with regard to higher education. The GATS covers five categories of education service: primary, secondary, higher, adult, and other education.[181] The actual agreement is made up of three interrelated parts. The first is the agreement itself, which outlines the broad principles to which all WTO member states must adhere. The second part consists of extra agreements and annexes, which relate to specific sectors covered by the agreement. The third part contains the schedules of commitments made by individual countries, which include details of how much access foreign service providers are allowed in specific sectors.[182] The provisions covered by the GATS are not designed to remain static, but rather they are to be renegotiated periodically. The discussion regarding the inclusion of higher education in the GATS has intensified particularly during the current renegotiation round launched in Doha in 2001.[183]

With reference to the Doha round, a recent article noted that "during the debate a significant disagreement appeared about higher education's inclusion in GATS as well as very contrasting assessments of GATS' impact on higher education on both global and national levels."[184] The establishment of the GATS and the inclusion of higher education in this agreement in essence expedited an international agenda of liberalisation and contributed to the development of an international higher education market based increasingly on competition and trade.[185] The GATS defines four ways in which a service can be traded and these apply to all service sectors included in it. Known as *modes of supply* these are cross-border supply, consumption abroad, commercial presence, and the presence of natural persons.[186] Consumption abroad involves the service consumer moving to the country of the service provider.[187] In terms of education services, this is where a student travels to another country to undertake study and currently represents

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[180] *Ibid,* 33.
[181] Knight, *Trade in Higher Education Services* , 6.
[182] Vlk, Westerheijden, and Van der Wende, *GATS and the steering capacity of a nation state in higher education,* 35.
[183] *Ibid,* 33.
[184] *Ibid*.
[185] Marijk van der Wende and Jeroen Huisman, "Europe," in *On Cooperation and Competition* (see note 11), 27.
[186] Knight, *Trade in Higher Education Services*, 5.
[187] Glenys Patterson, "Collaboration/Competition Crossroads: National/Supranational Tertiary Education Policies on a Collision Course," *Tertiary Education and Management* 11, no. 4 (2005): 363.

the largest share of the global education services market.[188] With regard to the internationalisation of higher education, this reflects the strong emphasis that is increasingly placed on the trade in education services whereby for many countries attracting foreign fee paying students for economic purposes is now a key internationalisation activity.

In this sense, commitments made under the GATS can be argued to be of little or no significance.[189] After all, the service providers in this case do not require special access to foreign markets. Instead, they remain in their own country and the service consumers come to them. However, linked to the strong emphasis that is increasingly placed on the trade in education services and attracting foreign fee paying students, for many institutions the provision of transnational education through the establishment of university campuses abroad, franchised courses or distance learning has also become popular. These initiatives are covered by the other three modes of supply defined by the GATS. Indeed, these three modes of supply cover respectively situations whereby the provision of a service crosses a border or in other words, the service is supplied by a provider physically located in one country to a consumer who remains in another country, as well as where service providers establish commercial facilities in another country in order to render a service, and where representatives from a service provider travel to another country on a temporary basis to provide service.[190]

In terms of higher education, this is where the potential implications of the GATS become more obvious and indeed, controversial, especially with regard to the establishment of commercial facilities in another country. For example, in seeking to establish a university campus abroad, service providers are likely to want increased access to foreign markets. The GATS provides the means to reduce barriers in this sense. According to Knight, barriers may range from the prohibition of education services offered by foreign entities or an inability to obtain national licences to grant qualifications, to the high subsidisation of local institutions.[191] She notes that for some the capacity of the GATS to reduce such barriers makes it "a positive force, accelerating the influx of private and foreign providers of higher education into countries where domestic capacity is inadequate."[192] However, she also notes that others "take a more negative view, concerned that liberalisation may compromise important elements of quality assurance and permit private and foreign providers to monopolise the best

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[188] *Ibid.*
[189] *Ibid.*
[190] *Ibid,* 362-363. Knight, *Trade in Higher Education Services*, 5.
[191] Knight, *Trade in Higher Education Services*, 14.
[192] *Ibid,* 2.

students and most lucrative programmes."[193] Given the strong emphasis that is increasingly placed on the trade in education services and attracting foreign fee paying students with respect to the internationalisation of higher education, including the provision of transnational education, the establishment of the GATS and the inclusion of higher education in this agreement are very topical. This would certainly seem to constitute an important contextual factor when considering the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand. Indeed, it can be noted that as one article published in 2005 states, New Zealand "has already ventured some way further down the GATS education road than have most other nations."[194]

It is interesting to note that before the Doha renegotiation round began to stall in 2003, New Zealand was one of only 44 of the now 153 WTO Members to have made commitments in education services, and one of only 21 of these to have included commitments in higher education.[195] The New Zealand education commitment under the GATS came into force in January 1995 and relates to private primary, secondary and tertiary education.[196] This in essence commits comparable government funding that is available to local private providers to foreign education providers who establish facilities in New Zealand.[197] Under this commitment, the government is not able to put any limit on its liability, while as it is a commitment under the GATS agreement it binds all future governments.[198] The need to grant comparable government funding to foreign education providers has implications in itself, but as the 2005 article notes there are also other potential issues. For example, it will encourage foreign education providers to establish facilities in New Zealand and while for some this may be a positive development, there are also potential negative domestic implications, such as:

> The propensity for foreign education providers to focus in on the big popular courses that are relatively cheap to run – computing, business studies, commerce – which can undermine the contribution these courses make in the public institutions to subsidy of the more expensive, not so numerically popular, but important in the public interest programmes, such as engineering and the sciences.[199]

Commitments are made under the GATS in the expectation that other countries will do the same and provide increased access to their markets. For example, in the current

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[193] *Ibid.*
[194] Patterson, "Collaboration/Competition Crossroads," *Tertiary Education and Management,* 358.
[195] *Ibid,* 359.
[196] *Ibid.*
[197] *Ibid.*
[198] *Ibid.*
[199] *Ibid,* 360.

Doha renegotiation round, New Zealand has requested that South Africa open its higher education sector to give unlimited access to foreign education providers, while it has also requested that European countries open up their full education sectors.[200] In seeking to reduce barriers in other countries, it will be interesting to see if New Zealand makes further commitments. For example, under the Doha renegotiation round the United States has requested that New Zealand open its full tertiary and adult education sectors, including public institutions.[201] The Doha round was meant to be concluded by 1 January 2005, but as referred to above, it stalled in 2003 and progress has been slow since. Attempts were made in 2008 to begin moving towards the conclusion of negotiations and it will certainly be interesting to see how this unfolds as there will undoubtedly be domestic implications of any further commitments made. In any case, as discussed further in chapter four, it seems that increasing attention is being given to the provision of transnational education and reducing barriers to this at the national level in New Zealand, and the GATS is particularly relevant in this sense.

While the recent developments in Europe focus mostly on cooperation, as Van der Wende and Huisman note, the agenda of liberalisation epitomised by the GATS "not only refers more to competition, but is also pushing higher education as a tradable commodity, challenging the concept of higher education as a public good."[202] However, it is worth noting that the recent developments in Europe also have a competitive element to them. The Bologna Process for example, promotes both cooperation and competition, specifically the promotion of European cooperation to increase the international competitiveness of the European higher education area.[203] When asked what it was hoped would be the legacy of the Bologna Process, competition or cooperation, the Head of the Benelux Bologna Secretariat, Marlies Leegwater answered that both were important. According to Leegwater, they are "two sides of a coin" with the promotion of cooperation being important, but with competition also serving a purpose in terms of quality and the profiling of higher education institutions.[204] As the title of the ACA publication which presented the findings of the first phase of the HEIGLO project, *On Cooperation and Competition: National and European Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education* indicates, the emergence of these two seemingly distinct and contradictory approaches with regard to the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education was at the centre of this project. Having begun to develop a more detailed understanding of the internationalisation of higher education and set the scene

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[200] *Ibid,* 362.
[201] *Ibid,* 361.
[202] Marijk van der Wende and Jeroen Huisman, "Europe," in *On Cooperation and Competition*, 27.
[203] Bologna Declaration, *The Bologna Declaration of 19 June 1999,* 2.
[204] Marlies Leegwater, interview by Will Shannon, 9 October 2008, Brussels, Belgium.

in terms of broader contextual factors, including recent global and regional trends, particularly related to internationalisation activities, this chapter ends by discussing in more detail the first phase of the HEIGLO project and other previous research relevant to this thesis.

2.4. Previous research

Internationalisation has become a key theme, not only in higher education policy, but also in higher education research generally. An increasing catalogue of literature addressing the international dimension of higher education is now available and in reading this, one will find reference to authors such as – in alphabetical order – Philip G. Altbach, Jane Knight, Peter Scott, Ulrich Teichler, Marijk van der Wende, and Hans de Wit to name just a few. It is on the shoulders of these experts that this thesis builds and it is important to now briefly attempt to set the scene in terms of previous research. An article by Kehm and Teichler published in 2007, which looks at the state of research on internationalisation in higher education, concludes that "research on the international dimensions of higher education has substantially expanded in recent years."[205] It adds that "just as internationalisation in higher education has become more multidimensional and multifaceted, so has research about internationalisation in higher education."[206] This section does not discuss all previous research on the internationalisation of higher education, instead it focuses on previous research relevant to this research, particularly that which has asked the question, why internationalisation?

De Wit notes that "this fundamental question received more structured and strategic attention only in the 1990s."[207] De Wit himself presented one of the first more thorough discussions of the different rationales for the internationalisation of higher education in a project released in 1995 which compared institutional strategies for internationalisation in higher education in Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America. This project identified two groups of rationales: economic and political, and cultural and educational.[208] This project was built upon in a follow-up study by De Wit and Knight released in 1997 which analysed the internationalisation of higher education in several Asian Pacific countries, including New Zealand. In terms of rationales, De Wit and Knight

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[205] Kehm and Teichler, "Research on Internationalisation in Higher Education," *Journal of Studies in International Education,* 269.
[206] *Ibid.*
[207] De Wit, *Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe*, 84.
[208] Knight and De Wit, "Strategies for internationalisation of higher education," in *Strategies for internationalisation of higher education*, 10-14.

separated them into four categories for the purposes of the 1997 study: political, economic, academic, cultural and social.[209]

As mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, these four categories are also used for the purposes of this thesis. In a subsequent article by Knight published in 2004 it was argued that "these generic categories remain a useful way to analyse rationales; however, the significant changes in nature and priority within each category need to be highlighted."[210] Indeed, it must be acknowledged that the importance of the differing rationales for internationalisation have been found to differ per country and through time, while within each category significant changes can also be identified. Therefore, before proceeding, the four categories of rationales identified by De Wit and Knight are elaborated on in more detail.

According to Knight, who authored the chapter which discussed these categories, the political rationales for internationalisation were historically based on the point of view that international education was a "beneficial tool for foreign policy especially with respect to national security and peace among nations."[211] However, Knight adds that "while this is still a consideration today, it does not have the importance it once did."[212] Knight notes that in the present era of globalisation, where there is a widespread belief that the homogenisation of cultures is a risk, in many countries more importance is given to internationalisation as a means to promote and strengthen national identity.[213] Knight also notes that the promotion of international education, particularly international higher education, is also "often considered as a form of diplomatic investment for future political and economic relations,"[214] with the funding of scholarships and international exchanges often justified on such grounds. Knight also recognises that in line with the increasing trend to view education as an export product, "we can see major shifts in foreign policies where education was primarily seen as a development assistance activity or cultural programme to one where education is an export commodity."[215]

This is where the political rationales for the internationalisation of higher education can become increasingly confused with economic ones. Knight confirms in her 2004 article that although there are "countries interested in the importing of education programs and

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[209] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific countries*, 9-12.
[210] Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled," *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 21.
[211] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific Countries*, 9.
[212] *Ibid.*
[213] *Ibid.*
[214] *Ibid.*
[215] *Ibid.*

institutions for nation-building purposes... there is a discernible shift from an aid/development approach to international partnerships to one focussed on trade for commercial purposes."[216] She adds that "this shift is likely to become more pronounced."[217] As was mentioned in the introduction to this thesis and has been argued throughout it, the available research suggests that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation policies, while it has also been mentioned that attracting foreign fee paying students for economic purposes is now a key internationalisation activity. Economic rationales in this sense do not necessarily refer simply to the direct economic benefit of attracting foreign fee paying students, such as tuition fees and the other money international students will inevitably put into the local economy during their stay. More generally though, there is recognition of the wider and more long-term economic benefits. For example, international students can become ongoing ambassadors for a country, they can fill labour shortages and they can improve a country's research capacity. Indeed, Knight notes that at the national level "there is a closer and closer link between internationalisation of the higher education sector and the economic and technological development of the country."[218] Within this context, increasing emphasis is also placed not only on the trade in education services, but the active promotion of horizontal student mobility and other internationalisation activities, the benefits of which are generally assumed to be more social or cultural, and often personal, but which are increasingly deemed to have wider economic benefits as is discussed below.

Overall, the available research certainly suggests that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation policies and with regard to national policies for the internationalisation of higher education, the persistence of this trend was identified in the first phase of the HEIGLO project, although as is discussed in more detail shortly, it did make several distinctions between those countries analysed. It acknowledged that economic rationales may relate to different aims, and that different approaches and models are chosen to achieve these aims. Nevertheless, in her 2004 article, with respect to the economic rationales for internationalisation, Knight argues that in the decade before this article was published "more emphasis has been placed on the income-generating opportunities attached to cross-border delivery of education."[219] She refers to the inclusion of higher education in the GATS as positive proof of this. She also maintains that in terms of the approaches chosen, "there has been a definite shift from

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[216] Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled," *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 24-25.

[217] *Ibid*, 25.

[218] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific Countries*, 10.

[219] Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled," *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 24.

alliances for cultural purposes to economic purposes."[220] In this sense she argues that increasingly, "the development of strategic alliances through internationalization of postsecondary education is therefore being seen as a way to develop closer cooperation bilaterally or regionally to gain a competitive edge."[221] Recent developments in Europe provide clear evidence of this and cooperation within the framework of the Bologna Process in particular is perhaps the leading example worldwide. This is again a prime example of where political rationales for the internationalisation of higher education become increasingly confused with economic ones.

In contrast to the economic rationales, many people believe that improving the quality of higher education should be the primary goal of internationalisation. This constitutes the primary academic rationale for internationalisation. The first phase of the HEIGLO project confirmed the need to distinguish between cooperation and competition with regard to national policies for internationalisation, and while the economic rationales discussed above have been found to increasingly drive internationalisation and tend to lead to policies based on competition, it did note that interest in cooperation is also apparent. Academic rationales for internationalisation tend to promote policies based on cooperation, although it has also been mentioned that for some people cooperation and competition go hand in hand, and international competition is often believed to serve a positive purpose as a means of quality assurance. Whatever approach is advocated, Knight states that "one of the leading reasons cited for internationalising the higher education sector is the achievement of international academic standards for teaching and research."[222] She notes that this is an increasingly controversial issue and that "it can be rigorously debated whether internationalisation is an end in itself, as is often articulated, or as a means to an end, with the end being the improvement of the quality of education."[223]

Even when internationalisation is promoted as a means to improve the quality of education or to provide other academic benefits, such as the internationalisation of the core teaching, learning and research functions of higher education institutions, this may not be considered an end in itself. For this reason, this thesis stresses the need to look beyond the rhetoric. Various rationales are often put forward to justify internationalisation, but it is important to attempt to understand what rationales are

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[220] *Ibid*, 23.
[221] *Ibid*, 24.
[222] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific Countries*, 11.
[223] *Ibid*.

actually driving it. In terms of national policies for internationalisation, academic rationales are often closely linked to economic rationales. Knight states that:

> Clearly, there can be a direct and beneficial relationship between an international market orientation and the internationalisation of the primary functions of a university/college or institute. However, the key phrase is 'can be' which implies that this is not always the case.[224]

On this basis, she notes that "a rigorous debate is now under way as to whether the export of education products to international markets is in fact contributing to the international dimension of teaching, research and service."[225] Knight also holds that "if one is to ensure that improving the quality of higher education is the primary goal of internationalisation, not the development of international export markets, it is essential to find the balance between income-generating motives and academic benefits."[226]

In terms of the cultural and social rationales for internationalisation, as mentioned above, internationalisation is often considered important as a means to promote and preserve national culture in response to the perceived homogenising effects of globalisation. In this sense, the internationalisation of higher education is viewed as a way to ensure cultural and ethnic diversity within and between countries.[227] Knight notes that "related to this point is the need for improved intercultural understanding and communication."[228] She adds that "the preparation of graduates who have a strong knowledge and skill base in intercultural relations and communications is considered by many academics as one of the strongest rationales for internationalising the teaching/learning experience of students in undergraduate and graduate programmes."[229] Knight concludes that "the emphasis is on the overall development of the individual as a local, national and international citizen. Citizenship involves more than being a productive member of the wealth generation sector, which the economic rationale clearly emphasises."[230] Although that is not to say that these rationales are not linked.

As was also mentioned above with respect to the economic rationales for internationalisation, increasing emphasis is placed not only on the trade in education services, but the active promotion of horizontal student mobility and other internationalisation activities, including staff mobility and internationalisation at home,

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[224] *Ibid*, 10.
[225] *Ibid*.
[226] *Ibid*.
[227] Ibid, 11.
[228] *Ibid*.
[229] *Ibid*.
[230] *Ibid*.

the benefits of which are generally assumed to be more cultural and social, and often personal. As has been mentioned previously, the citizens that graduate from higher education institutions are expected to be the professional and managerial classes of the future and in an increasingly interdependent global economy, creating international awareness among students is, therefore, increasingly considered important. However, creating international awareness among students is expected to have long-term economic advantages, as well as cultural and social benefits. Just as Knight noted the concern in the 1997 study that the increasing economic rationales driving internationalisation could potentially diminish its academic benefits, in her 2004 article she relates a similar concern with regard to the social and cultural benefits, noting that:

> The social and cultural rationales, especially those that relate to the promotion of intercultural understanding, and national cultural identity are still significant. But perhaps their importance does not carry the same weight in comparison to the economic and political based rationales listed above.[231]

There is a risk that by putting too much emphasis on economic rationales, the potential social and cultural benefits will be diminished.

In any case, just as the export of education services to international markets does not necessarily guarantee an improvement in the quality of education or contribute to the internationalisation of the core functions of teaching, learning and research, attracting international students or providing the means for selected domestic students to travel abroad does not necessarily create graduates with improved intercultural understanding. As mentioned previously, it is for these reasons that the concept of internationalisation at home has been developed - to supplement the limitations of student mobility and indeed, the export of education services simply for economic reasons. Certainly the concept of internationalisation at home appears to be based predominantly on cultural and social rationales, as well as academic ones. However, Knight does note in her 2004 study that "there is more attention being paid to enhancing the international dimension of teaching and research so that domestic students and academics can be better equipped to their country's effectiveness and competitiveness on the international stage."[232]

As the above discussion shows, it is important to emphasise that the four categories of rationales identified by De Wit and Knight are by no means distinct or exclusive, indeed,

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[231] Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled," *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 25.
[232] *Ibid,* 22.

they are often closely linked and interrelated.[233] Finally, it is also important to repeat that the importance of the differing rationales for internationalisation has been found to differ per country and through time, while the available research does suggest that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation policies. This was identified in the 1997 study where Knight notes that:

> It is clear from our previous cross country analysis of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States that the economic rationale has increasing importance and relevance. The country reports from the Asia Pacific region show a similar trend in that part of the world.[234]

Subsequent research has confirmed this trend, as well as the importance of national policies to understanding the increasing internationalisation of higher education and the rationales driving it. The subsequent article presented by Knight in 2004 emphasises that: "the national/sector level has an important influence on the international dimension of higher education through policy, funding, programs, and regulatory frameworks. Yet it is usually at the individual, institutional level that the real process of internationalisation is taking place."[235] Although the actual process of internationalisation does take place at the institutional level, as has also been mentioned previously, national policies form an important part of the institutional environment which influences this process. This was touched on by De Wit and Knight and attention was certainly given to the national context in their early studies discussed above. However, the primary focus was the institutional level.

Adding to the work of De Wit and Knight which focussed primarily on the actual process of internationalisation taking place at the institutional level, one of the first and most comprehensive studies to look at the national policies for internationalisation in higher education was carried out by Torsten Kälvemark and Van der Wende in 1997.[236] This research analysed the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in several European countries and laid the foundation for the first phase of the HEIGLO project which this thesis utilises. Its introduction noted that there was little reference made to internationalisation within the context of literature on national higher education policies and argued that it was important research focussed on national policies in this sense.[237] It went on to show that internationalisation played only a minor role in national policies for higher education in those countries analysed. However, it also found that

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[233] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific Countries*, 11.

[234] *Ibid*, 10.

[235] Knight, "Internationalization Remodeled*," Journal of Studies in International Education*, 6-7.

[236] Torsten Kälvemark and Marijk van der Wende, *National policies for internationalisation of higher education in Europe* (Stockholm: National Agency for Higher Education, 1997).

[237] *Ibid,* 10.

economic rationales were of growing importance in the internationalisation policies that did exist and it concluded that the international dimension was expected to become more important in the definition and development of national higher education policy. A subsequent article published by Van der Wende in 2001 confirmed that the international dimension had gained in importance in national policies for higher education.[238] It also demonstrated that the economic rationales for internationalisation had gained in importance in the intervening five years.

The follow-up article notes that whereas the development of higher education policy traditionally took place at the national level, with governments being major actors in the process, the role of the government and its relationship with higher education institutions had changed recently.[239] The article states that, "in particular, de-regulation and the introduction of market mechanisms have increased the range of actors (or stakeholders) who are involved in the coordination of higher education systems."[240] It goes on to mention that subsequently, the various actors increasingly turned to the international dimension and referring to the previous study, Van der Wende notes that, while in the period after World War II political and cultural rationales were the main argument for internationalisation policies and initiatives, the academic rationale then became more common, and nowadays internationalisation is driven more by "concerns related to international labour competence and economic competitiveness."[241] The article noted that, "the increasing economic rationale for internationalisation confirms the shift from cooperation to competition."[242] It states that in Europe, "the general awareness of the importance of increasing the international competitiveness of European higher education is clearly growing."[243] With regard to the strong emphasis increasingly placed on the trade in education services referred to above, it noted that national policies were increasingly geared to attract international students.[244] However, it also noted that, "countries vary to a large extent with respect to their economic aims and interests and the instruments they use."[245] The article concluded that:

> The awareness of international competition has no doubt been influenced by the proposals for the next negotiation round of the WTO concerning the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), including the trade in educational services, and the very proactive role of the US. This process

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[238] Marijk van der Wende, "The International Dimension in National Higher Education Policies: what has changed in Europe in the last five years?" *European Journal of Education* 36, no. 4 (2001).
[239] *Ibid*, 431.
[240] *Ibid.*
[241] *Ibid,* 432
[242] *Ibid,* 438.
[243] *Ibid,* 440.
[244] *Ibid.*
[245] *Ibid,* 431.

will certainly lead to a further enhancement of the economic rationale for internationalisation.[246]

The first phase of the HEIGLO project picked up from here and as the introduction of *On Cooperation and Competition* notes, it provided "an opportunity to assess whether internationalisation has indeed become more important and more integrated into national higher education policies, and to review the extent to which the economic rationales have become important during the last few years."[247] However, the HEIGLO project constituted a significant development from previous research in that, guided by institutional theory, its second phase went on to analyse the actual process of internationalisation taking place at the institutional level. In this sense, it was a culmination of the work of De Wit, Knight, Kälvemark and Van der Wende discussed above, looking at in detail and linking both the national context and the actual process taking place at the institutional level, and in its entirety forming the most thorough attempt to date to explain the increasing internationalisation of higher education and the rationales driving it.

In terms of the national level, as mentioned above, the first phase of the HEIGLO project confirmed the need to distinguish between cooperation and competition, concluding that the trend towards more economically orientated rationales was persisting and that policies based on competition were increasing.[248] It also concluded that the internationalisation of higher education is entering a new phase whereby it is no longer mainly about student and staff mobility. However, it did add that these activities remain important and with respect to the continuing trend towards more economically orientated rationales, it seems that priority is still given to student mobility in those countries analysed. It states that:

> Student mobility has been given new 'global' policy relevance as a result of the increased marketisation of higher education. Whereas until the 1980s the recruitment of foreign students was largely undertaken for social, political, cultural and academic reasons, the national reports show that economic and financial issues are now seen as an integral part of [higher education] HE policies.[249]

It has been mentioned that a strong emphasis is increasingly placed on the trade in education services and despite the substantial horizontal mobility that takes place in Europe under the Erasmus programme, the first phase of the HEIGLO project showed

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[246] *Ibid,* 439.
[247] Van der Wende, "Introduction," in *On Cooperation and Competition,* 13.
[248] Luijten-Lub and others, "International Comparative Analysis," in *On Cooperation and Competition*, 273.
[249] *Ibid,* 262.

that the national policies in those countries analysed gave increasing attention to attracting foreign fee paying students and the provision of transnational education within the context of the trade in education services. The UK is shown to have taken the lead in this sense. Indeed, it is noted that in the UK especially, the economic rationale now appears to be the dominant driver for the internationalisation of higher education.[250] Although, as *On Cooperation and Competition* also noted, "most of the other countries in the study are moving in a similar direction but more slowly."[251]

Nevertheless, the first phase of the HEIGLO project did show that interest in cooperation is also apparent and as mentioned previously, it did make several distinctions between those countries analysed, notably that economic rationales may relate to different aims and that different approaches and models are chosen to achieve these aims. For example, the comparative analysis presented in *On Cooperation and Competition* notes that:

> Economic rationales may be related to the aim of improving the international competitiveness of the HE sector itself or, as a result of the importance of HE for the knowledge economy, to the aim of enhancing the international competitiveness of the national economy.[252]

While in terms of the different approaches and models chosen, it notes that these range "from straightforward competition to European wide international collaboration to help improve the performance of European universities generally."[253] The leading example of the latter approach is within the framework of the Bologna Process, which as mentioned previously, is based on the promotion of European cooperation to increase the international competitiveness of the European higher education area. It is also worth restating here, that for some cooperation and competition go hand in hand, and competition is often believed to serve a positive purpose as a means of quality assurance. However, the first phase of the HEIGLO project did conclude that, "tensions between these two concepts are visible particularly in discussions of the GATS issue."[254] Whatever approach prevails, the available research certainly suggests that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation and indeed, the first phase of the HEIGLO project reaffirmed that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation policies at the national level in those countries analysed.

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[250] *Ibid,* 273.
[251] *Ibid.*
[252] *Ibid*.
[253] *Ibid.*
[254] *Ibid.*

Chapter Three

The New Zealand Higher Education System and its Internationalisation Infrastructure

3.1. Introduction

Chapter two developed a more detailed understanding of the internationalisation of higher education and specifically, its historical context, the current global situation and previous research that exists relevant to this thesis. To further build a solid foundation from which to address the main research question, this chapter now provides a short overview of the New Zealand higher education system and its internationalisation infrastructure, including identifying changes in the national higher education policy context since 1999. According to the OECD, "New Zealand has adopted a very broad definition of higher education."[255] The term tertiary education is used to describe all post-school education and training in New Zealand. A recent review of the New Zealand higher or tertiary education system by the OECD released in 2008 noted that, "if one thing characterises New Zealand's tertiary education policy it is change."[256] It explains that:

> As has been the case in many other countries, tertiary education reform is tied into more general public sector reform, which in the New Zealand case has been combined with major macro-economic reform. Whilst the economy moved from a strongly regulated and protected economy to a liberalized market economy, the tertiary education sector transformed from an elite university system to a mass tertiary system that has become part and parcel of the international tertiary education sector.[257]

Alongside change, another characteristic of the New Zealand tertiary education system identified in the OECD review is its complexity. The report notes that "although New Zealand is a relatively small country, its governance, steering and planning structure to the outsider's eye is relatively complex and involves a large number of actors."[258]

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[255] Leo Goedegebuure and others, *OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education: New Zealand* (2008), *http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/11/52/38012419.pdf*, 15.
[256] *Ibid,* 16.
[257] *Ibid.*
[258] *Ibid,* 17.

3.2. Basic features, facts and figures

The New Zealand tertiary education system today comprises around 900 separate institutions. This is vastly different from the situation that prevailed under the federated University of New Zealand structure that existed from 1870 to 1961.[259] The University of New Zealand comprised four colleges based in Otago, Canterbury, Wellington and Auckland. Although each college operated with a degree of independence, the University of New Zealand was governed by a central Senate largely composed of representatives of the colleges, which according to the Encyclopaedia of New Zealand had the sole right "to confer degrees, and to make general regulations about qualifying conditions."[260] The University of New Zealand was disestablished in 1961, and its functions were subsequently distributed among four independent and autonomous universities.[261] Today, the New Zealand tertiary education system encompasses 31 public institutions, including eight universities, 20 institutes of technology and polytechnics, and three wānanga – tertiary education institutions guided by Maori principles and values.[262] In essence, a binary higher education system exists, whereby there is a clear distinction between the academically-orientated universities and the other more vocationally-orientated institutions. The latter category also comprises 43 industry training organisations, and some 800 private training establishments, which include English language schools.[263] In addition, there are many adult and community education providers.

In terms of changes in the national higher education policy context that have occurred recently, in the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s, New Zealand adopted more competitive, market-based policies for tertiary education. This was part of much wider economic and political reform that began with the election of the Fourth Labour Government in 1984. After two terms in office, this government was defeated by National in the 1990 election and throughout the 1990s, under successive National-led governments, a market ethos continued to dominate tertiary education policy. The new Labour-Alliance government elected in 1999 was quick to distance itself from the

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[259] *Ibid,* 15.

[260] Encyclopaedia of New Zealand, s.v. "Education, University – University of New Zealand: The 1874 Act and the 1879 Commission," *http://www.teara.govt.nz/1966/E/EducationUniversityUniversityOfNewZealand/ The1874ActAndThe1879Commission/en.*

[261] Encyclopaedia of New Zealand, s.v. "Education, University – University of New Zealand: Growth and Dissolution," *http://www.teara.govt.nz/1966/E/EducationUniversityUniversityOfNewZealand/ GrowthAndDissolution/en.*

[262] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *The New Zealand Tertiary Education System, http://www.minedu.govt.nz/educationSectors/TertiaryEducation/PublicationsAndResources/TheMinistryOfEduca tionAndTheTertiaryEducationSystem/The_New_Zealand_Tertiary_Education_System.aspx.* Please note that there were also previously four separate Colleges of Education. However, these have since merged with universities.

[263] *Ibid.*

National-led governments of the 1990s and indeed, the Fourth Labour Government. This thesis is interested in the changes that have occurred in the national higher education policy context since 1999 under successive Labour-led governments because these changes are particularly relevant to the national policies for internationalisation that are its focus, specifically those released from 2001 when *Export Education in New Zealand: A Strategic Approach to Developing the Sector* was released, but primarily the *International Education Agenda: A Strategy for 2007-2012*. As was mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, despite the election of a new National-led government in November 2008, this remains the most recent and most thorough expression of New Zealand's national policies for the internationalisation of higher education.

One of the ways these Labour-led governments have attempted to distinguish their tertiary education policies from those promulgated during the National years of the 1990s is in relation to competition.[264] Nevertheless, while there was a shift towards more central governmental steering tied to national needs, as is elaborated on further in the next section, the general thrust of competition was maintained.[265] The culmination of the shift towards more central governmental steering tied to national needs was the implementation of the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002-07* which according to the OECD review constituted "a high-level strategy that articulates the key goals for New Zealand's tertiary education system and defines how the system will help give effect to the government's vision and goals for New Zealand."[266] The latest *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12* was released in December 2006. The intention of this more strategic government approach is clearly to link the New Zealand tertiary education system to the country's economic and social development - a worldwide trend identified in another recent OECD report.[267] In particular, the tertiary education system is seen as crucial to the idea of building a knowledge society and economy.

However, as Peter Roberts notes, "as time has passed it has become increasingly clear that it is very much the *economic* aspect of this ideal that has come to dominate. Little has been said about what a knowledge *society* might look like."[268] This is clear in the second *Tertiary Education Strategy* which states that the government's aim for New Zealand "is a high income, knowledge-based economy, which is both innovative and

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[264] Peter Roberts, "Beyond the Rhetoric of "Quality" and "Relevance": Evaluating the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12," New Zealand Annual Review of Education* 17 (2007): 49.
[265] Goedegebuure and others, *OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education: New Zealand*, 17.
[266] *Ibid.*
[267] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, *Tertiary Education for the Knowledge Society – OECD Thematic Review of Tertiary Education: Synthesis Report* (2008), *http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/ 20/4/40345176.pdf*, 2.
[268] Roberts, "Beyond the Rhetoric," *New Zealand Annual Review of Education,* 51.

creative, and provides a unique quality of life to all New Zealanders."[269] It subsequently identifies three themes considered important to achieving this goal: economic transformation – accelerating the pace of change in our economy, families young and old - providing families with the support to maximise potential, and national identity - pride in who and what we are. However, the goal of economic transformation is accorded primary importance. The *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12* and indeed, other policies released since 1999 advocate a more strategic approach to tertiary education. However, the overall vision continues to be dictated by the rules of the global market and directed towards ensuring international competitiveness in the knowledge economy. Those social aims identified are not articulated clearly and play a secondary or supplementary role. As Roberts notes with regard to the second *Tertiary Education Strategy* and the goal of economic transformation, "the other themes are not unimportant, but they are clearly secondary to this overriding goal."[270]

With regard to the operation of the New Zealand tertiary education system, the main agencies involved are the Ministry of Education, the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), NZQA and Career Services Rapuara. The TEC, NZQA and Career Services are all Crown Agencies meaning their governing boards are appointed by and responsible to the relevant government Minister. The Ministry of Education advises the government on strategic policy and the specific goals for the tertiary education system are then set out in the *Tertiary Education Strategy*.[271] These are built into the three-yearly Statement of Tertiary Education Priorities, as well as the charters and profiles of individual institutions. According to the OECD review, "charters contain the institution's mission and role in the system, whilst the profile is the more detailed operation of this in terms of strategic direction, activities, policies and performance targets."[272] This all takes place within the context of an integrated funding framework that is discussed in more detail later in this chapter, while in essence the TEC acts as an implementing agency, negotiating charters and profiles with institutions, as well as allocating funding.[273] The TEC is supported by NZQA which in the words of the OECD review, "provides overarching quality assurance, administers the national qualifications framework (the Register of Quality Assured Qualifications), registers private providers and evaluates overseas qualifications."[274]

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[269] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12* (2007)*, http://www.minedu.govt.nz/~/media/MinEdu/Files/EducationSectors/TertiaryEducation/TertiaryEducationStrategy.pdf*, 8.

[270] Roberts, "Beyond the Rhetoric," *New Zealand Annual Review of Education,* 51.

[271] Goedegebuure and others, *OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education: New Zealand*, 17-18.

[272] *Ibid,* 18.

[273] *Ibid,* 17-18.

[274] *Ibid.*

The TEC is also supported in various other ways by Career Services, as well as other key departments such as the Ministry of Social Development, Inland Revenue Te Tari Taake, the Ministry of Research, Science and Technology, the Department of Labour, the New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee (NZVCC), the New Zealand Teachers' Council, and what the OECD review describes as "a wide range of stakeholder organisations that take part in policy discussions, formal platforms, informal meetings, and the like, ranging from employers' organisations to trade unions and student organisations."[275] Before proceeding, it is worth quickly referring back to quality assurance and while NZQA is primarily responsible for this in the tertiary education sector, it is not responsible for the quality assurance of universities. This is one of the responsibilities of the NZVCC, which represents the interests of New Zealand's eight universities. In turn this responsibility has been delegated to the Committee on University Academic Programmes (CUAP), while the New Zealand Universities Academic Audit Unit (NZUAAU) also established by the NZVCC carries out university academic quality audits. With the exception of postgraduate qualifications, NZQA has also delegated its quality assurance functions for institutes of technology and polytechnics to the Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics of New Zealand (ITPNZ). ITPNZ's quality assurance functions are carried out by the Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics Quality (ITPQ).[276]

As Table 3.1 on the following page shows, qualifications offered at New Zealand's various tertiary education institutions range from levels 1-3 to level 10 on the New Zealand Register of Quality Assured Qualifications, although levels 1-3 constitute approximately the same standard as senior secondary education and basic trade training.[277] According to the Ministry of Education, in total, there were 484,104 students enrolled in tertiary education institutions in New Zealand in 2007, including 416,827 students enrolled in public institutions and 78,191 enrolled in private training establishments.[278] Of those enrolled in public institutions, 170,183 were enrolled in universities, 216,645 in institutes of technology and polytechnics, and 42,352 in wānanga.[279] When considering only students enrolled in qualifications between levels 4-10 on the New Zealand Register of Quality Assured Qualifications, the percentage of students enrolled in public institutions as opposed to private training institutes remains reasonably constant. There were a total of 291,356 students enrolled in tertiary education institutions in New Zealand pursuing

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[275] *Ibid*, 18.
[276] New Zealand Qualifications Authority, *New Zealand Tertiary Quality Assurance System,* http://www.nzqa.govt.nz/for-international/tertqa.html.
[277] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *The New Zealand Tertiary Education System.*
[278] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Provider-based enrolments, http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/ __data/assets/excel_doc/0020/16292/Provider-based_enrolments.xls,* ENR.11. Please note that those students who were enrolled in more than one sub-sector have been counted in each sub-sector. Consequently, the sum of each sub-sector may not add up to the total number of students.
[279] *Ibid.*

qualifications between levels 4-10, including 260,216 students enrolled in public institutions and 38,102 enrolled in private training establishments.[280] However, when considering those students enrolled in public institutions, the percentage enrolled in universities increases dramatically. Of those students enrolled in public institutions between levels 4-10, 166,444 were enrolled in universities, 89,996 in institutes of technology and polytechnics, and 13,593 in wānanga.[281]

Table 3.1: New Zealand Register of Quality Assured Qualifications Levels[282]

Level 10 - Doctorate programmes:

Offered through universities and one institute of technology

Level 9 – Masters:

Offered through universities, colleges of education, institutes of technology, polytechnics, wānanga and private training establishments

Level 8 - Honours, post-graduate diplomas and certificates:

Offered through universities, colleges of education, institutes of technology, polytechnics, wānanga, and private training establishments

Level 7 - Degrees, graduate diplomas and certificates:

Offered through universities, colleges of education, institutes of technology, polytechnics, wānanga, and private training establishments

Levels 6, 5 – Diplomas:

Offered through universities, colleges of education, institutes of technology, polytechnics, wānanga, private training establishments, and industry training

Levels 4, 3, 2 – Certificates:

Offered through universities, colleges of education, institutes of technology, polytechnics, wānanga, private training establishments (including English language schools), adult and community education providers, and industry training

Level 1 – Unit Standards:

Offered through a variety of providers ranging from secondary schools; public, private and community training establishments (including English language schools); adult and community education providers; and industry training

Overall, the available data shows that the percentage of the New Zealand population enrolled in tertiary education has increased recently. In 2001, the total participation rate

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[280] *Ibid.*

[281] *Ibid*.

[282] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *The New Zealand Tertiary Education System.*

was 11.4 percent, while in 2007 it was 13.3 percent.[283] This constitutes an increase in the participation rate by 17 percent over this period.[284] The major increases can be found in the 25-39 years age bracket, where an increase by 13 percent was recorded, as well as in the 40 years and over age bracket where there was an increase by 63 percent.[285]   In terms of historically underrepresented minority ethnic groups, increases were recorded across the board with an increase of 13 percent in the participation rate of Asian students, 14 percent for Maori students and 24 percent for Pacific students.[286] However, these increases were relatively constant with the increase of 17 percent in the participation rate of European students.[287]

The proportion of international students relative to the total number of students enrolled in tertiary education institutions in New Zealand has increased dramatically in recent times. Table 2.2 located on page 29 of this thesis shows an increase from 3.7 percent in 1998 to 13.5 percent in 2003.[288] This means that despite the fact that only 1 percent of the total number of international students studying in OECD countries are enrolled in New Zealand institutions, relative to its size New Zealand is one of top destinations for international students.[289] Australia (19 percent) and Switzerland (18 percent) receive the largest proportion of international students relative to their total enrolments with nearly one in five students being foreign, while Austria, Belgium, France, Germany and the UK also have a significant proportion of international students representing between 10 percent and 14 percent of total enrolments.[290] In contrast, the proportion of international students remains below 2 percent of total enrolments in Italy, Korea, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Turkey. [291]

In terms of the proportion of New Zealand students studying abroad relative to those enrolled domestically, OECD statistics show that 34 New Zealand students per 1000 studied abroad in 1998.[292] In comparison, 13.5 students from the UK per 1000 students

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[283] The participation rate is the percentage of the population aged 15 and over who were enrolled at any time during the year.
[284] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Participation rates, http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/ __data/assets/excel_doc/0008/16289/Participation_rates.xls*, PPN.1. For the purposes of this data, the category of European refers not only to people who affiliate as New Zealand European, but also as Other European or European (not further defined).
[285] *Ibid.*
[286] *Ibid.*
[287] *Ibid.*
[288] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2005*, 267.
[289] *Ibid*, 254.
[290] *Ibid,* 267.
[291] *Ibid*.
[292] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, "Student Mobility Between and Towards OECD Countries: A Comparative Analysis," in *Trends in International Migration* (2001), *http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/43/57/2507712.pdf*, 100.

enrolled in the UK higher education system studied abroad.[293] Greece had one of the highest rates with 146.9 students per 1000 studying abroad.[294] France had 18.3 and Germany had 22.3.[295] Outside Europe, 5.3 Australian students per 1000 studied abroad in 1998, while a mere two students from the United States per 1000 did.[296] In 2003, the ratio of students studying abroad relative to those enrolled domestically had increased slightly in New Zealand to 3.5 percent or 35 students per 1000.[297] Meanwhile the United States remained constant at 0.2 percent, Australia increased slightly to 0.6 percent, while in Europe the percentage of students studying abroad decreased in the UK and Greece to 1.2 percent and 8.4 percent respectively, and increased to 2.5 percent in France and 2.8 percent in Germany.[298]

3.3.   Public expenditure on higher education

According to the 2008 OECD review:

> Tertiary institutions derive their revenues from four major sources in New Zealand: government subsidies (48%), student tuition fees (29%), external research contracts (9%) and other income (*e.g.* provision of services, industry training) (13%)... The proportion of income derived from government funds has declined from 52% in 1997 to 39% in 2004 for the university sector and from 64% to 60% for the ITP sector over the same period of time.[299]

In terms of government subsidies, these are allocated to tertiary education institutions according to an integrated funding framework. All forms of tertiary education are clustered together for the purposes of this funding framework which in the words of the OECD review, "seeks to resource and steer the system towards the goals of the Tertiary Education Strategy, and to provide institutions with the flexibility to operate in a responsive and innovative way."[300] This constitutes a change in tertiary education funding policy signalled by the establishment of the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002-07*. An information briefing note for Members of the New Zealand Parliament released by the Parliamentary Library in 2003 summarises that, previously or at least since the 1980s, the majority of post-school funding was primarily administered through the Ministry of Education's Student Component funding system, which involved the payment of a base or flat fee, based on the forecast and actual number of enrolments or

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[293] *Ibid.*

[294] *Ibid.*

[295] *Ibid.*

[296] *Ibid.*

[297] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2005*, 267.

[298] *Ibid*.

[299] Goedegebuure and others, *OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education: New Zealand*, 20.

[300] *Ibid*.

Equivalent Fulltime Students (EFTS).[301] This funding formula effectively provided an incentive to institutions to maximise their enrolments.[302] According to the briefing note, it reflected "the fact that during this period, the funding philosophy was market based, whereby the consumers, (student demand for higher education), determined the types and numbers of courses offered by the institutions."[303] The briefing note also adds that competition between institutions was encouraged at the national level "as it provided income and was seen as the main driver for quality."[304]

However, the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002-07* stated that the changes represented in it would be supported by changes in tertiary education funding policy:

> This will see a shift from a demand-driven system to a much more strategic approach to funding. These changes will place greater emphasis on building capability and developing strategic relationships between providers and with other sectors. Over time some funding will be more directly linked to performance measured in terms of student achievement and research quality.[305]

The resulting new funding framework attempts to align funding with the key directions identified in the *Tertiary Education Strategy*. Funding is designed to be more strategic and not simply driven by the volume of student enrolments. In practice, funding is delivered through two pools, as a guide released by the TEC in 2007 explains: the Student Achievement Component, "which provides a government contribution to the costs of teaching and learning and other costs driven mainly by student numbers,"[306] and the Tertiary Education Organisation Component, "which provides a government contribution to support each institution to focus on its specific and distinctive roles in the network of provision."[307] In the case of Industry Training Organisations, an Industry Training Fund operates in place of the Student Achievement Component.[308]

In a briefing to the incoming Minister of Education released in November 2008, it was noted that the Government would invest approximately $2,789 million in direct subsidies

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[301] New Zealand Parliamentary Library, *Tertiary Education Funding: Overview of Recent Reform* (2003)*, http://www.parliament.nz/NR/rdonlyres/0F263419-AAE9-48EF-9FC9-990F850C38E1/330/ 0308TertiaryFunding1.pdf*, 4.
[302] *Ibid*.
[303] *Ibid*.
[304] *Ibid*.
[305] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002-07* (2002)*, http://www.tec.govt.nz/upload/downloads/tertiaryeducationstrategy-2002-2007.pdf*, 66.
[306] Tertiary Education Commission, *Investment Guidance Supplement: Key Funding Decisions* (2007)*, http://www.tec.govt.nz/upload/downloads/investment-guidance-supplement-final-28-june.pdf,* 2.
[307] *Ibid.*
[308] *Ibid*.

to tertiary education institutions over the 2008/09 period.[309] Perhaps ironically, the Student Achievement Component ($1,533 million) constitutes the most significant government contribution under the new tertiary education funding system and this is still largely based on the total number of student enrolments.[310] In the words of the November 2008 briefing, "it is the single largest source of revenue for universities, wänanga, and institutes of technology and polytechnics, and is also allocated to many private training establishments and other tertiary education providers."[311] Although actual allocations are based not simply on the total number of student enrolments, but rather on the number agreed upon with the Government via the TEC in Investment Plans, and as the November 2008 briefing notes they "are calculated using a sophisticated formula with funding rates that vary significantly by the type of qualification and for each part of the sector."[312] As the actual number of enrolments in any one year may vary from the total number agreed upon in an Investment Plan, there is a 3 percent tolerance band for over and under-delivery.[313] The overall aim is to provide more certainty in terms of the amount of funding institutions will receive in future years.

The Tertiary Education Organisation Component ($624 million) is not directly related to student enrolments and provides funding mainly for universities, wänanga, and institutes of technology and polytechnics.[314] There are six elements within this component, of which the largest two are the Performance-Based Research Fund ($236 million) and the TEI Base Investment ($310 million).[315] As the November 2008 briefing describes, "the four other elements include funding for innovative projects and priority outcomes from the *Tertiary Education Strategy*, supporting major change programmes and the strategic leadership role of industry training organisations."[316] The Performance-Based Research Fund (PBRF) is allocated, mainly to universities, based on research outputs.[317] The research performance of institutions is assessed and then funding is provided to them on the basis of their performance. Under the previous funding system, funding was allocated for research simply as an EFTS top-up.[318] According to the TEC, the TEI Base

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[309] Tertiary Education Commission, *Briefing to the Incoming Minister: November 2008* (2008), *http://www.tec.govt.nz/upload/downloads/bim-2008-oia.pdf*, 13.

[310] *Ibid.*

[311] *Ibid.*

[312] *Ibid*.

[313] Tertiary Education Commission, *Student Achievement Component, http://www.tec.govt.nz/templates/standard.aspx?id=2912.*

[314] Tertiary Education Commission, *Briefing to the Incoming Minister: November 2008*, 13.

[315] *Ibid,* 13-14.

[316] *Ibid,* 14.

[317] *Ibid*, 13.

[318] Tertiary Education Commission, *Performance Based Research Fund, http://www.tec.govt.nz/templates/standard.aspx?id=588*.

Investment is intended to provide stable funding, "which focuses institutions on their core roles and distinctive contributions,"[319] and of which only a small proportion, if any is expected to be allocated according to the Student Achievement Component funding that each institution receives.[320] Although until 2011, as the November 2008 briefing notes, it will be "allocated via a transitional formula that is largely related to student enrolments."[321]

The new funding system outlined above certainly does constitute a move away from the previously market orientated system which was largely based on attracting more students, towards a more mixed model where competition is not the only incentive. However, competition does remain an important component both in terms of the Student Achievement Component where attracting students is still an important means of funding – institutions simply need to be more accurate in their forecasting – but, also with respect to new elements introduced, such as the PBRF where institutions are competing for valuable funding. This section now focuses on the overall public expenditure on tertiary education in New Zealand, but first it was mentioned above that the Student Achievement Component constitutes a government contribution to the costs of teaching and learning and other costs driven mainly by student numbers. It is worth noting that the government contribution is merely a subsidy and that as the 2008 OECD review notes, "practically all institutions, whether public or private, charge tuition fees."[322] In 2004, the average domestic annual tuition fee for one equivalent full time student was $3,934 at universities, $2,254 at institutes of technology and polytechnics, and $405 at wānanga.[323]

Prior to 1989, tuition fees were low and much of the fee charged was paid through a student support system in any case. A standard tuition fee was then introduced, but this was subsequently abolished in 1991 and institutions were given the freedom to set their own fees.[324] The 2008 OECD review shows that, "average fees increased 170% over the period 1991-99, compared to a rise of the consumer price index of 13%."[325] However, since 1999, such growth has slowed as a result of fee stabilisation policies having been introduced, specifically the policy of Fee and Course Costs Maxima (FCCM), which was introduced in 2004.[326] As the 2008 OECD review notes, the FCCM limits the extent to

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[319] Tertiary Education Commission, *Briefing to the Incoming Minister: November 2008*, 14.
[320] Tertiary Education Commission, *TEO Component Funding, http://www.tec.govt.nz/templates/ standard.aspx?id=2905*.
[321] Tertiary Education Commission, *Briefing to the Incoming Minister: November 2008*, 14.
[322] Goedegebuure and others, *OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education: New Zealand*, 22.
[323] *Ibid.*
[324] *Ibid,* 103 – 104.
[325] *Ibid,* 22.
[326] *Ibid.*

which institutions can raise their fees by providing "a set of upper limits for undergraduate fees, with a maximum in each field."[327] Fees can be increased to this maximum, but only provided that they increase by no more than 5 percent in any one year, while separate limits exist for postgraduate fees.[328] The OECD review also shows that since 2000, there has been considerable discounting of fees in institutes of technology and polytechnics, as well as wānanga.[329] It also points out that international students are not publicly subsidised under the funding system discussed above and institutions are therefore expected to charge them full cost fees.[330] It shows that "between 2000 and 2004, international student fees increased by 24% and international fee revenues increased from less than 5% of total institutional revenues to around 13%."[331]

In terms of the overall public expenditure on tertiary education in New Zealand, in 2002, this stood at 1.7 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP).[332] The 2008 OECD review showed that this constituted the 5th highest percentage among the 28 OECD countries for which data are available.[333] The only countries with higher percentages were Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden.[334] While New Zealand's level of spending amounted to 5.2 percent of total public expenditure, which according to the OECD review, was the highest share among 26 OECD countries.[335] It also notes that:

> Public current expenditure on tertiary education grew 27% in real terms between 1999/2000 and 2004/05. This reflects a period of significant expansion of enrolments: 64% growth of total enrolments, 54% growth of domestic enrolments, and 42% growth of government-funded EFTS (equivalent-full-time students) in public tertiary education institutions.[336]

In 2003, the public operating expenditure on tertiary education constituted 2.1 percent of GDP, while for the year ended June 2008, it stood at 1.9 percent.[337]

The OECD review shows that in 2004/05, a majority of the public expenditure on tertiary education in New Zealand constituted government subsidies to institutions (51.3 percent).[338] The form of these subsidies was discussed above. The remaining amount

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[327] *Ibid.*
[328] *Ibid.*
[329] *Ibid.*
[330] *Ibid.*
[331] *Ibid.*
[332] *Ibid*.
[333] *Ibid*.
[334] *Ibid*.
[335] *Ibid.*
[336] *Ibid.*
[337] New Zealand Ministry of Education, "Funding of tertiary education," in *Profile & Trends 2007: New Zealand's Tertiary Education Sector* (2008)*, http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/__data/assets/pdf_file/0015/ 34044/Ch16-investing-in-knowledge-and-skills.pdf*, Figure 16.2.
[338] Goedegebuure and others, *OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education: New Zealand*, 19.

was distributed between the student loan scheme (26.8 percent), the student allowance scheme (10.2 percent) and other expenses (11.7 percent).[339] The student loan scheme provides loans for domestic students to pay their tuition fees and other course-related costs. The student allowance scheme provides a living allowance for eligible domestic students whilst studying. To be eligible for the student allowance, students must meet certain income and age criteria. Those who are not eligible can claim living costs under the student loan scheme. Other expenses include the training incentive allowance scheme which exists to help beneficiaries with employment-related training costs. For the year ended June 2008, there was a total public expenditure on tertiary education of $4.8 billion of which, $2,455 million (approximately 51.2 percent) constituted government subsidies to institutions, $1,457 million (approximately 30.4 percent) went to the student loan scheme, $386 million (8 percent) was spent on the student allowance scheme and $366 million on other expenses.[340] After having summarised the situation in terms of the public expenditure on tertiary education in New Zealand, it is finally worth mentioning that the recent OECD review also found that "in New Zealand, another aspect which stands out is the proportion of spending on tertiary education coming from private sources: in 2002, 37.5% of expenditure on tertiary education institutions reflects private household expenditure."[341] Indeed, this too constituted the fifth highest share among the 27 OECD countries for which data are available.[342]

3.4. Actors and steering instruments for the internationalisation of higher education

This chapter now concludes by discussing the actors and steering instruments for the internationalisation of tertiary education in New Zealand. The primary steering instrument for the internationalisation of tertiary education at the national level in New Zealand is *The International Education Agenda: A Strategy for 2007-2012*. This document applies to all levels of education in New Zealand, but in terms of tertiary education it aligns with and is designed to support the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12* and the Statement of Tertiary Education Priorities. The *International Education Agenda* notes that it "is both a strategy document and an overview of international education in New Zealand, providing a framework for the wide variety of international

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[339] *Ibid*.

[340] New Zealand Ministry of Education, "Funding of tertiary education," in *Profile & Trends 2007,* Figures 16.1 and 16.3. Please note that in the original source, the figures listed here for government subsidies to institutions were listed in two categories: "tuition subsidies and provider capability" and "other tertiary training" which includes the Industry Training Fund.

[341] Goedegebuure and others, *OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education: New Zealand*, 19.

[342] *Ibid*.

education providers, including primary, intermediate, and secondary schools,"[343] as well as of course the various tertiary education institutions discussed above. The Agenda is an overview of international education in New Zealand in that in its own words, "it gives a snapshot of what is happening today, and outlines government initiatives to date."[344] While as a strategy document, "it sets the direction for government's engagement in international education over the next five years, and identifies priority areas for government action."[345] According to the Agenda, the "government will regularly review progress and formulate further specific actions to be taken, advising education providers and other interested organisations of progress and consulting them on development of initiatives."[346]

In terms of actors, the key government agencies involved in the development of the *International Education Agenda* largely reflect those with a role in the internationalisation of tertiary education at the national level in New Zealand; the Department of Labour, the Education Review Office, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (MFAT), the Ministry of Research, Science and Technology, the New Zealand Agency for International Development (NZAID), NZQA, New Zealand Trade and Enterprise (NZTE), and the TEC.[347] As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the Ministry of Education, the TEC, and NZQA are the main agencies involved in the operation of the New Zealand tertiary education system generally, alongside Career Services Rapuara. With respect to international education, the Ministry of Education has a specific International Division and as mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, it leads the development and implementation of strategy, policy and regulations relating to international education in New Zealand. It also negotiates education cooperation agreements and has eight education counsellors based in Beijing, Kuala Lumpur, Washington DC, New Delhi, Riyadh, Brussels, Santiago (Chile) and Seoul whose role is to promote understanding of New Zealand's education system internationally.[348] As also mentioned, the TEC is responsible for implementing the government's strategy for tertiary education, as well as allocating funding, and this includes implementing the government's international strategy at the tertiary level. It was also mentioned that the TEC is supported by NZQA, which provides quality assurance of qualifications offered by

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[343] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *The International Education Agenda: A Strategy for 2007-2012* (2007)*, http://www.minedu.govt.nz/~/media/MinEdu/Files/EducationSectors/InternationalEducation/PolicyStrategy/11 950%20ie%20agenda%20final%20download%20100807.pdf*, 3.
[344] *Ibid.*
[345] *Ibid.*
[346] *Ibid.*
[347] *Ibid*.
[348] *Ibid,* 44.

New Zealand tertiary education institutions. This includes facilitating the recognition of New Zealand qualifications overseas and overseas qualifications in New Zealand.[349]

With regard to the other key government agencies involved in the development of the *International Education Agenda*, the Education Review Office is involved only at the early childhood, primary and secondary school levels. It is responsible for investigating and reporting on the quality of education at these levels, as well as the level of care received by students. In an international sense, the *International Education Agenda* notes that "this includes reviewing the extent to which each school that is a signatory to the *Code of Practice for the Pastoral Care of International Students* provides a safe emotional and physical environment for international students."[350] The *Code of Practice* constitutes "a framework for minimum standards, good practice procedures and a complaints procedure"[351] by which all providers enrolling international students must comply. At the tertiary level, the external monitoring of compliance with the *Code of Practice* is carried out by the delegated sector quality assurance agencies referred to earlier in this chapter. For example, the New Zealand Universities Academic Audit Unit (NZUAAU) performs compliance audits in the university sector. Meanwhile, the Department of Labour, MFAT, the Ministry of Research, Science and Technology, NZAID, and NZTE are all important actors in terms of the internationalisation of tertiary education at the national level in New Zealand.

In the words of the *International Education Agenda*, the Department of Labour "issues student permits and has responsibility for student immigration policy, including opportunities for international students and graduates to participate in the New Zealand labour market."[352] MFAT "leads the development, coordination, and facilitation of initiatives to promote international linkages."[353] In this sense, "MFAT works with the Ministry of Education to implement offshore initiatives, particularly education diplomacy and scholarships."[354] It also works to secure greater opportunities for the New Zealand export education industry through trade negotiations.[355] The Ministry of Research, Science and Technology "facilitates connections between New Zealand science and technology researchers, including those in the tertiary education system, and their international colleagues, to increase innovation, technology transfer, capability

[349] *Ibid.*
[350] *Ibid.*
[351] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Code of Practise for the Pastoral Care of International Students,* http://www.minedu.govt.nz/educationSectors/InternationalEducation/ForProvidersOfInternationalEducation/CodeofPracticeforInternationalStudents.aspx.
[352] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*, 44.
[353] *Ibid.*
[354] *Ibid.*
[355] *Ibid.*

enhancement, and joint investment."[356] NZAID "supports basic, post-basic, and tertiary education in a range of developing countries as part of New Zealand's development assistance objectives,"[357] while NZTE is "the New Zealand government's national economic development agency."[358] According to the *International Education Agenda*, its "education sector strategy is to build the capability of New Zealand education providers to create innovative products and services for the high growth potential corporate, industry, and government knowledge services (education, training, consultancy, and research) markets."[359] NZTE also "provides country market intelligence reports and strategic advice to Education New Zealand."[360]

In terms of non-governmental actors, there are various agencies and organisations that facilitate and support the internationalisation of tertiary education in New Zealand through scholarships and other means, but Education New Zealand is the leading one. Once again in the words of the *International Education Agenda*, Education New Zealand is "a not-for-profit charitable trust that is governed by, and works to empower, New Zealand's education exporters."[361] Education New Zealand "is recognised by government as the umbrella industry body and works in partnership with New Zealand Trade and Enterprise to jointly manage the generic and collective marketing of New Zealand education internationally."[362] The *International Education Agenda* holds that "while the various agencies active in international education have different roles, they work together to ensure a coordinated approach."[363] The *International Education Agenda* is discussed further in the following chapter which begins by briefly outlining the current national policies and regulatory frameworks aimed at the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand, before presenting the main analysis of what rationales are driving the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand.

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[356] *Ibid.*
[357] *Ibid.*
[358] *Ibid.*
[359] *Ibid*, 45*.*
[360] *Ibid.*
[361] *Ibid.*
[362] *Ibid.*
[363] *Ibid*, 44.

Chapter Four

The Current National Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education in New Zealand and the Rationales Driving Them

4.1.   The current national policies and regulatory frameworks aimed at the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand

The analysis of what rationales are driving the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand presented in this chapter involves data obtained from the archival research of primary documents in the form of current national policy documents, specifically those released from 2001 when *Export Education in New Zealand: A Strategic Approach to Developing the Sector* was released, but the primary focus is the *International Education Agenda: A Strategy for 2007-2012.* As mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, the archival research of primary documents in the form of these and other current national policy documents released thereafter is combined with an unstructured interview with Paul Lister, Policy Manager of the Ministry of Education's International Division. As discussed in the conclusion of this chapter, this interview largely corroborated the findings of the archival research presented below. However, before presenting these findings it is important to answer the question, what are the other current national policies and regulatory frameworks aimed at the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand?

The *Export Education* document constitutes the first national policy for internationalisation implemented after the Labour-Alliance government was elected in 1999. According to a recent review of the New Zealand tertiary education system commissioned by the Ministry of Education and focussing specifically on internationalisation in New Zealand tertiary education institutions, the other main developments in terms of national polices and regulatory frameworks aimed at the internationalisation of tertiary education in New Zealand and released from 2001 under the successive Labour-led governments of this period include: the aforementioned *Code of Practice for the Pastoral Care of International Students* released by the Ministry of Education in March 2002; the also previously mentioned, *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002-07* released by the Ministry of Education in May 2002, and an Export Education

Provider Levy introduced in December 2002.[364] The review also notes that these and other policy elements were consolidated into two further packages released by the Ministry of Education; *An International Education Framework* which was released in 2004, and *Strengthening International Education* released in 2005.[365] Since the review of internationalisation in New Zealand tertiary education institutions, the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12* has been released, along with a specific *Education Strategy for India 2006-2009*.[366] However, the most significant development at the national level has been the release of the *International Education Agenda: A Strategy for 2007-2012*.

4.2. The rationales driving the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand

4.2.1. Introduction

Despite the election of a new National-led government in November 2008, the *International Education Agenda 2007-2012* does remain the most recent and most thorough expression of New Zealand's national policies for the internationalisation of tertiary education and as such, this analysis focuses primarily on it. However, first selected secondary documents and specifically previous studies that relate to the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand are utilised to discuss trends that have already been identified, while the rationales driving the other national policies released from 2001 and outlined above are also discussed. The latter discussion does not focus on the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002-07*, nor does it discuss the second *Tertiary Education Strategy*. While these documents do make reference to internationalisation, their international goals are more clearly expressed in the other national policies discussed, particularly in the *International Education Agenda 2007-2012* in terms of the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12*. However, the connection between the rationales driving the current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand and these broader higher education policies are certainly of interest.

4.2.2. Existing Trends

A trend at the national level in New Zealand towards internationalisation policies that are primarily driven by economic rationales has already been identified in previous research. Similar to the trend identified by Van der Wende and discussed in chapter two, this trend

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[364] Craig McInnis, Roger Peacock, and Vince Catherwood, *Internationalisation in New Zealand Tertiary Education Organisations* (2006)*, http://www.educationnz.org.nz/indust/eeidf/CD08 -InternationalisationinNZTEO-finalreport.pdf*, 23.

[365] *Ibid*.

[366] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Education Strategy for India 2006-2009* (2006)*, http://www.minedu.govt.nz/~/media/MinEdu/Files/RTF/EducationSectors/InternationalEducation/EducationStr ategyForIndia20062009RTF.rtf*.

away from post World War II internationalisation policies largely based around the provision of education aid to those that are primarily driven by economic rationales and specifically aimed at the trade in education services began in the late 1980s. The recent review of internationalisation in New Zealand tertiary education institutions, notes that since the late 1980s, "in New Zealand 'international education' and the measure of institutional success at 'internationalisation', have been defined overwhelmingly by the trade in education services."[367] From the end of World War II, international education in New Zealand largely consisted of education aid,[368] although Ian Smith and Gillian Parata note that of the 2551 international students enrolled in New Zealand universities in 1986, there were only 589 government and Commonwealth funded students.[369] Therefore, the majority were private international students. However, they add that "at that stage, private overseas students paid the same fees as New Zealanders, or, where no fees applied, received free tuition."[370] From the late 1980s though, New Zealand adjusted its international education policies to allow tertiary education institutions to charge international students full cost fees. A report referred to by Smith and Parata, entitled *Directions in Foreign Exchange Earnings: Education Services* and commissioned by the New Zealand Market Development Board in 1987 laid the foundation for this.[371] The report "emphasised the heavily subsidised educational opportunities being offered to foreign students in addition to the official student aid programme and recommended the introduction of a full-fee cost recovery policy."[372] The eventual introduction of such a policy led to the situation referred to above whereby the trade in education services came to overwhelmingly define internationalisation in New Zealand.

The recent OECD review of the New Zealand tertiary education system discussed in the preceding chapter notes that, "although New Zealand can be characterised as a very international oriented country, a more systematic focus on internationalisation of tertiary education is a rather new feature starting in the late 1980s."[373] It also confirms that "during the latter years, it is the export dimension of internationalisation that has been brought to the fore."[374] Indeed, the recent review of internationalisation in New Zealand tertiary education institutions argues that:

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[367] McInnis, Peacock, and Catherwood, *Internationalisation in New Zealand Tertiary Education Organisations,* 20.
[368] *Ibid*, 19-20.
[369] Ian Smith and Gillian Parata, "Internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific Countries* (see note 1), 124.
[370] *Ibid.*
[371] *Ibid.*
[372] *Ibid.*
[373] Goedegebuure and others, *OECD Reviews of Tertiary Education: New Zealand*, 36.
[374] *Ibid.*

Notwithstanding... ongoing commitments to international education aid, to goodwill and student-experience exchanges, and to research and teaching collaborations, the recruitment of international students has been the dominant dimension of internationalisation for education sector policy and for institutional responses in New Zealand over the last two decades.[375]

It goes on to add that:

The Export Education 2001 statement noted the connection between education export performance and a range of other international relations objectives and domestic education outcomes. In the subsequent policy responses, there was some recognition of these other dimensions, but overwhelmingly the policy developments and programme resources were directed to enhancing the international 'sales' performance of New Zealand institutions.[376]

4.2.3. The rationales driving the other national policies released from 2001

The *Export Education* 2001 document continued the overall trend towards internationalisation policies primarily driven by economic rationales and specifically aimed at the trade in education services. However, it states the desire for a more strategic approach to export education in New Zealand. Indeed, its purpose is to examine "the challenges facing New Zealand's export education industry"[377] and to identify "a strategic direction for the long-term, sustainable development of the sector."[378] In terms of economic rationales, it refers to both the direct economic benefits of this, and the more general and long-term benefits. For example, it lists the direct economic benefits for institutions in the form of increased income and for non-education sectors through associated spending, as well as the more general and long-term benefits that stem from the "creation of internationally-based knowledge, skills and relationships that will help ensure New Zealand's future viability."[379] As commented on in the recent review of internationalisation in New Zealand tertiary education institutions, it does note the other dimensions and potential wider benefits, promoting the vision of "a sector providing sustainable, high quality international education and support services, thereby producing a range of economic, educational and cultural benefits for New Zealand."[380] Its foreword notes that "the benefits of export education are more than just financial,"[381] and the potential wider benefits listed include the "enrichment of programmes and

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[375] McInnis, Peacock, and Catherwood, *Internationalisation in New Zealand Tertiary Education Organisations,* 22.

[376] *Ibid.*

[377] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Export Education in New Zealand: A Strategic Approach to Developing the Sector* (2001)*, http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/__data/assets/pdf_file/0015/15117/exported.pdf*, 10.

[378] *Ibid.*

[379] *Ibid,* 14.

[380] *Ibid*, 13.

[381] *Ibid,* 7.

curriculum through the experience and perspectives of international students."[382] It also lists the benefits to individuals that came from "exposure to different cultures and perspectives, building competence to succeed in a cross-cultural and international context."[383]

Nevertheless, the focus remained overwhelmingly on the trade in education services and attracting foreign fee paying students within this context for primarily economic purposes, and the overall aim of the *Export Education* 2001 report is clearly to improve the international competitiveness of the New Zealand export education industry in this sense, albeit in a more strategic, systematic and as such, sustainable way. The *Export Education* 2001 document holds that:

> Put in stark terms, New Zealand could take a mass recruitment approach to export education with low coordination in terms of policy, planning or skill development. This approach would stretch our capacity and risk damaging the positive features which we are building our reputation on. Or we could take an approach pitched at providing quality services, underpinned by systems and principles which support sustainability and ongoing improvement, and which help us to increase the value derived from our activity across a number of areas.[384]

In pursuing the latter vision, the report discusses the need to introduce "measures to ensure consistently high quality educational and supporting services [as well as] excellent pastoral care and a community and physical environment in which students are safe and happy."[385]

The C*ode of Practice for the Pastoral Care of International Students* picks up on the need identified in the *Export Education* 2001 document, to introduce measures aimed at improving the overall experience of international students who come to New Zealand. The *Code of Practice* was mentioned in the previous chapter and constitutes a framework for the pastoral care of international students with which all providers enrolling international students must comply.[386] It applies to the marketing, recruitment and enrolment of international students, as well as the support services that are available to them once at their institution.[387] The *Code of Practice* is designed to regulate the New Zealand export education industry and provides a set of minimum standards by which it must operate. However, it also appears to be an expression of the more strategic,

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[382] *Ibid,* 14.
[383] *Ibid.*
[384] *Ibid*, 12.
[385] *Ibid,* 13.
[386] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Code of Practice for the Pastoral Care of International Students*.
[387] *Ibid.*

systematic and sustainable government approach to ensuring its international competitiveness.

The Export Education Provider Levy was introduced in December 2002. The levy constitutes a $185 flat fee component, excluding GST to be paid by institutions for each international student enrolled at their institution, as well as 0.45 percent of tuition and course fee income, also excluding GST.[388] The levy does not only apply to tertiary education, but to all levels of education in New Zealand. In fact, none of the national policies discussed in this section deal exclusively with tertiary education, nor indeed does the *International Education Agenda 2007-12* as has already been mentioned. Nevertheless, tertiary education is a major focus of them all. The Export Education Provider Levy is especially designed to support the more strategic, systematic and sustainable government approach being implemented in terms of export education. A statement announcing the introduction of the levy, quoted the then Minister of Education, Trevor Mallard as saying, "the introduction of the levy marks an important step in improving long-term capability to manage issues associated with this important and innovative industry, while also focussing on development and sustained growth."[389] The statement went on to say that:

> The levy will support a wide range of development and risk management activities for the export education industry, including continued promotion of New Zealand as a quality education destination; development of the Code of Practice for the Pastoral Care of International Students; professional development programmes for export education providers and research into key industry issues.[390]

However, in a clear expression of the economic rationales driving these initiatives that the levy is designed to support and, indeed the more strategic, systematic and sustainable approach to export education reflected in this and the other national policies for the internationalisation of tertiary education in New Zealand discussed above, the Minister of Education was also quoted in the statement as saying, "the export education industry is worth more than an estimated $1.5 billion to New Zealand annually."[391]

The two packages released by the Ministry of Education in 2004 and 2005; *An International Education Framework* and *Strengthening International Education* reaffirmed the government's commitment to strengthening the internationalisation of education in New Zealand and set aside funding in two consecutive Budgets to achieve this. The 2004

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[388] Trevor Mallard, *Export Education Levy Announced, http://beehive.govt.nz/release/export+education +levy+announced*.
[389] *Ibid.*
[390] *Ibid.*
[391] *Ibid.*

international education package constituted an extra $40 million over four years to be used to establish up to four off-shore education counsellors; to provide funding for up to 100 postgraduate and 100 undergraduate scholarships to attract top international students to New Zealand, and for up to 100 New Zealanders to study overseas, as well as funding for generic promotion and marketing of international education in New Zealand, and finally an innovation fund for international education.[392] The 2005 package delivered an additional $21 million over the next four years, which increased the total government investment in international education to over $70 million in the five years to 30 June 2009.[393] The new funding was to be used to expand the government's off-shore education counsellor network, laying the foundation for the network of eight education counsellors that exist today, as well as to provide incentives to attract more top-quality doctoral level students to New Zealand.[394]

The Ministry of Education commissioned review on internationalisation in New Zealand tertiary education institutions noted that:

> The 2005 statement from the Ministry of Education on strengthening internationalisation, in addition to again giving primary and significant attention to enhancing New Zealand's education export performance, noted that the internationalisation of New Zealand education must be underpinned by improving the quality of education experience and outcomes for all students.[395]

This again reflects the more strategic, systematic and sustainable approach to export education at the national level. However, the statement accompanying the 2005 package does, as the *Export Education* 2001 document did, touch on the connection between education export performance and the other dimensions and potential wider benefits, as well as the assumed economic benefits. It notes that:

> By welcoming students from other countries New Zealand gains socially and culturally by learning about other cultures and ideas. The New Zealand education system provides students with the knowledge and skills to achieve results equal to the world's best. International education is about sharing this excellence with the rest of the world, and bringing the best from elsewhere to further improve achievement for all students.[396]

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[392] Trevor Mallard, *International Education Initiatives Announced, http://www.beehive.govt.nz/node/20680.*
[393] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Strengthening International Education* (2005)*, http://www.minedu.govt.nz/~/media/MinEdu/Files/EducationSectors/InternationalEducation/FormsAndGuidelin es/StrengtheningInternationalEducation.pdf,* 1.
[394] *Ibid.*
[395] McInnis, Peacock, and Catherwood, *Internationalisation in New Zealand Tertiary Education Organisations,* 23.
[396] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Strengthening International Education,* 2.

While the funding allocated in the 2004 package also recognises other internationalisation activities aside from attracting foreign fee paying students, particularly the benefits of New Zealand students spending a period of study abroad. Nevertheless, the 2005 statement also notes that:

> There is global competition to attract students and researchers... With competition for students intensifying, New Zealand's investment in quality, innovation, and strategic promotion needs a long-term focus. To keep New Zealand competitive, we must provide quality study programmes and safe, welcoming academic and social environments for international students.[397]

It goes on to refer to "the $2 billion plus annual value of export education."[398] As was the case with the *Export Education* 2001 report and indeed, the subsequent national policies discussed above, the overwhelming focus remained on the trade in education services and attracting foreign fee paying students within this context for primarily economic purposes. The overall aim of these national policies is clearly to improve the international competitiveness of the New Zealand export education industry in this sense, albeit in a more strategic, systematic and as such, sustainable way.

Finally, it should be noted that the *Education Strategy for India 2006-2009* continues this general trend, but at a more specific level and it does refer to the other dimensions and potential wider benefits, in addition to economic benefits. It also appears to be concerned with not only attracting foreign fee paying students, but also facilitating other internationalisation activities, such as student exchange agreements. As it notes, "this Strategy seeks to create an environment in which a sustainable education relationship can develop, and one that will provide significant mutual learning, research and economic benefits."[399] The question remains, does the *International Education Agenda 2007-2012* also continue the general trend discussed above? The *International Education Agenda* is certainly a continuation of the more strategic and systematic approach reflected in the national policies discussed. According to its Ministerial Foreword, "the International Education Agenda 2007-2012 sets out the government's vision and strategy for international education in New Zealand over the next five years."[400] In addition, the introduction which summarises why New Zealand needs an *International Education Agenda* states that it "sets out how we can achieve the internationalised education system New Zealand needs in order to be fully integrated with the global economy."[401] Accordingly it notes that it "takes a long term view, while also outlining

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[397] *Ibid*, 4.
[398] *Ibid.*
[399] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Education Strategy for India 2006-2009,* 1.
[400] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*, 1.
[401] *Ibid,* 2.

short term priorities."[402] However, the *International Education Agenda* is not concerned exclusively with export education and it also notes that "international education has multiple dimensions, including those that are social, cultural, academic, economic, and political."[403] This statement provides a good link to the next section of this chapter, which analyses the rationales driving the *International Education Agenda* specifically.

4.2.4. The rationales driving the International Education Agenda 2007-2012

The *International Education Agenda* refers to all four categories of rationales identified by De Wit and Knight and discussed above when, as already quoted, it talks of the multiple dimensions of international education. It refers to the social, cultural, academic, economic and political dimensions in the context of discussing what international education is and why it is important for New Zealand. It elaborates on this, stating that:

> International education gives students a global context, which helps them understand how local issues (such as rising costs and the need for environmental sustainability) are shaped by world events. It develops their global citizenship skills and enhances their understanding and respect for other cultures, and their own identity. 'Internationalising' the education system is a means of enhancing the quality of teaching and research, building human capital, strengthening educational partnerships with developing and developed nations, and increasing trade in education services.[404]

This is certainly a broad set of goals and indeed, when the *International Education Agenda* subsequently talks about what international education looks like in practice, it refers to both the abroad components of internationalisation, including not only attracting foreign fee paying students but other activities including the mobility of staff, as well as the at home components.[405] This opening section of the *International Education Agenda* provides a good example of the various rationales that are often put forward to justify internationalisation and while it is perhaps too harsh to call this mere rhetoric, it is nonetheless important to look beyond such general statements and attempt to understand what rationales actually drive it. Indeed, from this broad beginning the *International Education Agenda* sets four more specific goals and the key outcomes sought from each one. These goals and the key outcomes sought can be seen in Table 4.1 on the next page.

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[402] *Ibid,* 6.
[403] *Ibid*, 4.
[404] *Ibid*.
[405] *Ibid.*

Table 4.1: The Four Goals of the International Education Agenda 2007-2012[406]

Government's Priorities for New Zealand			
National Identity	Economic Transformation		
International Education Goals Supporting Government's Priorities			
Goal 1: New Zealand students are equipped to thrive in an inter-connected world.	**Goal 2:** International students are enriched by their education and living experiences in New Zealand.	**Goal 3:** New Zealand providers are strengthened academically and financially.	**Goal 4:** New Zealand receives wider economic and social benefits.
Key Outcomes Sought			
New Zealand students have well developed global knowledge, especially of Asia and the Pacific rim. They understand and respect other cultures, and contribute to the good of national and international communities. They have the skills to succeed in multicultural and multilingual settings at home and overseas. They are enterprising and outward-looking, and their identity as New Zealanders is strengthened by their international experiences and interactions.	International students are welcomed, receive effective orientation guidance, exemplary pastoral care, and learning support. They succeed academically and increasingly choose to continue their studies in New Zealand. They are well integrated into our education institutions and communities. Employers benefit from their talents, supported by responsive immigration policies. They become ongoing advocates for New Zealand, facilitating future academic/economic connections.	The academic and research performance of New Zealand education providers is further strengthened through international linkages. International education programmes are: - High quality - Strategic - Well aligned with providers' missions - Diversified - Innovative - Sustainable - Well managed New Zealand school and tertiary qualifications are internationally recognised and valued for study and employment purposes.	New Zealand's international relationships are further strengthened through educational partnerships. New Zealand research benefits from increased international collaboration, funding, and commercialisation. There is greater uptake of our educational intellectual property and services overseas. International education and other New Zealand business activities are well linked. There is sustainable growth in New Zealand's export education earnings, with beneficial flow-on to local communities.

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[406] *Ibid*, 9-10.

In addition to the information contained in Table 4.1, the *International Education Agenda* also outlines how it is envisioned each goal will be achieved, including the main requirements, the government's overall approach, short-term and medium-term priorities, and supporting actions and areas for future work. The four goals of the *International Education Agenda* are deemed to be interdependent and in turn, each goal is intended to contribute to the overarching national priorities of national identity and economic transformation.[407] At this stage it becomes much clearer which rationales actually drive the *International Education Agenda 2007-12*, and which outcomes are seen as beneficial, but not an end on their own.

The first goal of the *International Education Agenda* appears to be predominantly based on cultural and social rationales linked to the government priority of national identity. The emphasis of this goal appears to be based on what Knight, when discussing the cultural and social rationales for internationalisation, referred to as "the overall development of the individual as a local, national and international citizen."[408] As she noted, "citizenship involves more than being a productive member of the wealth generation sector, which the economic rationale clearly emphasises."[409] In terms of this goal, it seems that this is genuinely the case. It was discussed above that creating international awareness among students is increasingly expected to have long-term economic advantages, as well as cultural and social benefits, and while in this case there are almost certainly expected to be long-term economic benefits if New Zealand students are equipped to thrive in an inter-connected world, this does not appear to be the primary motivation behind this goal. It was mentioned there is a risk that by putting too much emphasis on economic rationales the potential social and cultural benefits will be diminished. This certainly does not appear to be the case in terms of the first goal of the *International Education Agenda* and indeed, the primary emphasis of this goal appears to be based predominantly on cultural and social rationales. However, it is worth noting that this is just one of four goals.

Before moving on to the second goal, it should also be quickly restated that just as the export of education services to international markets does not necessarily guarantee an improvement in the quality of education or contribute to the international dimension of the core functions of teaching, learning and research, attracting international students or providing the means for selected domestic students to travel abroad does not necessarily create graduates with improved intercultural understanding. It is for these reasons that

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[407] *Ibid,* 8.
[408] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific Countries*, 11.
[409] *Ibid.*

the concept of internationalisation at home has been developed and in achieving the first goal of the *International Education Agenda* it outlines the short-term priorities of not only increasing "tertiary and secondary student take-up of opportunities to study abroad by reducing barriers, and diversifying the range of students and destinations involved"[410], but also investigating and sharing "good practice in internationalising tertiary curricula and tertiary teaching."[411] Although as quoted above, Knight did note in her 2004 study that more attention is being paid to enhancing the international dimension of teaching and research for reasons based around improving a country's effectiveness and competitiveness on the international stage. Again though, the primary emphasis of the first goal of the *International Education Agenda* appears to be based on cultural and social rationales.

On the other hand, the second goal appears to be based on political and predominantly economic rationales linked to the government priority of economic transformation. While the second goal of the *International Education Agenda* puts significant emphasis on enhancing the overall experiences of international students in New Zealand, this is not necessarily considered an end on its own and the overarching aim seems to be based on political and particularly economic rationales. Knight noted that the promotion of international education is "often considered as a form of diplomatic investment for future political and economic relations."[412] The last outcome sought as part of this goal certainly seems to be based on such a consideration. By creating an environment where international students are enriched by their experiences in New Zealand it is expected that they will become ongoing advocates for New Zealand. This can have the direct economic benefit of helping to attract more foreign fee paying students by enhancing the image of the New Zealand export education industry. However, it can also have more general and long-term political and economic benefits, such as providing a platform for future research or business collaboration.

This along with another outcome sought, that New Zealand employers benefit from the talents of international students during and after study show that just as the first phase of the HEIGLO project made several distinctions between those countries analysed in terms of the economic rationales for internationalisation, including that economic rationales may relate to different aims, distinctions can also be made within countries in this sense. With respect to this goal, as is stated, the government's approach is clearly

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[410] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*, 16.

[411] *Ibid.*

[412] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific Countries*, 9.

to "focus on the welfare of students... and the quality of education delivery."[413] However, it is also to "protect and enhance New Zealand's reputation as an excellent destination for international students."[414] The former approach certainly appears to be considered a means to achieve the latter, which recognises not only the direct economic benefits, but as also stated "the long term and less tangible benefits international students bring to New Zealand – for example, as talent in a tight labour market and as potential future advocates for New Zealand in their own countries."[415]

With regard to the third goal of the International Education Agenda, this appears to be primarily based on academic, as well as economic rationales and also linked to the government priority of economic transformation. The first two outcomes sought as part of this goal are clearly to improve the quality of education in New Zealand. As was mentioned above, for many people this should be the primary goal of internationalisation. Knight noted that "it can be rigorously debated whether internationalisation is an end in itself, as is often articulated, or as a means to an end, with the end being the improvement of the quality of education."[416] The third goal of the *International Education Agenda* certainly advocates improving the quality of education in New Zealand. However, it seems less certain and perhaps unlikely that this is considered an end in itself. As the last outcome sought demonstrates, it is anticipated that any academic benefits achieved will in turn improve the international recognition of New Zealand qualifications. This will presumably help to attract foreign fee paying students, bringing direct economic benefits as the wording of the goal itself indicates. In this sense, it seems less certain that improving the quality of education in New Zealand is considered an end in itself. When considering this outcome alongside those sought as part of the second goal of the *International Education Agenda* it seems unlikely.

Improving the international recognition of New Zealand qualifications will help to attract foreign fee paying students, which will bring direct economic benefits, but these international students will also be enriched by the quality of their education and their overall experience in New Zealand as envisioned under the second goal, subsequently becoming members of the New Zealand workforce and/or ongoing advocates for New Zealand, helping to attract more foreign fee paying students and contributing to more general and long-term political and economic benefits. Indeed, the second and third goals seem inseparable in this sense and despite a statement with respect to the third

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[413] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*, 21.
[414] *Ibid.*
[415] *Ibid.*
[416] Knight, "Internationalisation of higher education," in *Internationalisation of higher education in Asia Pacific Countries*, 11.

goal, noting that the government's approach is to "focus on quality and educational success above all"[417] it does seem unlikely that this is considered an end in itself. As with the second goal, improving the international competitiveness of the New Zealand export education industry also seems to be a major motivation. This is not unusual because, as mentioned above, academic rationales are often closely linked to economic rationales in terms of national policies for the internationalisation of higher education. As also discussed above, international competition is often believed to serve a positive purpose as a means of quality assurance. To be competitive it is widely expected that the education offered will be high quality, and in turn international competition is often expected to improve the quality of education. Nevertheless, it is certainly worth noting the emphasis that is given to improving the international competitiveness of the New Zealand export education industry under this goal when considering the rationales driving the *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*.

It should also be noted that the third goal of the *International Education Agenda* identifies the Bologna Process as a key area of engagement. Indeed, the Bologna Process is referred to in the third goal when it talks of the importance of bilateral and multilateral mutual recognition agreements that increase the portability of New Zealand qualifications.[418] It also lists engagement in the Bologna Process as a short-term priority with regard to increasing the international recognition of New Zealand's quality assurance system and qualifications.[419] While New Zealand is not eligible to join the Bologna Process, just as the third goal of the *International Education Agenda* advocates improving the quality of education in New Zealand as a means to improve the international recognition of New Zealand qualifications, ensuring the comparability of New Zealand's tertiary education system with the Bologna Process is expected to serve a similar purpose and also presumably help to attract foreign fee paying students. The recently released paper on the Bologna Process and New Zealand alludes to this.[420] However, in this sense, comparability with the Bologna Process is not only expected to be beneficial with respect to attracting European students, but the paper also notes that it will "provide institutions with a useful marketing tool in third countries."[421] Nevertheless, it should be noted that this paper also notes that ensuring comparability with the Bologna Process is likely to have a number of wider implications for student mobility, making institutional exchanges and collaborations easier, as well as enabling

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[417] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*, 30.
[418] *Ibid*, 26.
[419] *Ibid,* 30.
[420] New Zealand Ministry of Education and New Zealand Qualifications Authority, *New Zealand and the Bologna Process,* 4.
[421] *Ibid.*

New Zealand graduates "to be able to move freely in the international arena for postgraduate educational opportunities and in the global labour market."[422]

Finally, the fourth goal of the *International Education Agenda* appears to be primarily based on political and economic rationales also linked to the government priority of economic transformation. This goal refers directly to the desired political and economic benefits of internationalisation, including, but not limited to the overall direct economic benefit of a successful and sustainable export education industry. As was discussed above, the second and third goals of the *International Education Agenda* are expected to help attract foreign fee paying students and as such, they are expected to contribute to the maintenance of a successful and sustainable export education industry. However, the fourth goal also advocates a government approach based on resourcing the direct marketing of New Zealand education generally.[423] The second and third goals also referred to wider political and particularly economic benefits in terms of their expected outcomes, and so does the fourth goal with respect to the potential benefits of internationalisation more generally, noting that:

> International education, while being a major export industry in its own right, is also a key to enabling New Zealanders to be globally connected. Education is one of the strongest ways of encouraging people-to-people links between countries, which can lead to future economic ties and cultural exchanges. International education is therefore one long term way of improving New Zealand's international standing.[424]

Politically, the fourth goal also still refers to the importance of development assistance activities, particularly through NZAID. Indeed, it notes that "in the 2005-2006 financial year, NZAID allocated $68.3 million – 20 percent of its total programme budget – to education activities around the world."[425] This included $29 million that went towards post-basic and tertiary education programmes.[426] However, significant reference is also made to building international education relationships for commercial purposes. This goal refers to the wider political and economic benefits in this sense, including the long-term objective of improving New Zealand's research capacity. However, international education is clearly seen as an export commodity, and the government's overall approach and priorities listed with regard to this goal focus largely on promoting the attractiveness of New Zealand education internationally through marketing, promotion and diplomacy. It also makes reference to enhancing the capability of New Zealand

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[422] *Ibid.*
[423] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*, 36.
[424] *Ibid,* 33.
[425] *Ibid*, 35.
[426] *Ibid.*

institutions to provide transnational education in this sense. Indeed, it refers to the benefits of New Zealand education providers creating innovative products and services which respond to market opportunities offshore.[427] It notes that NZTE as part of its education sector strategy "is working to match offshore education and training opportunities with New Zealand organisations capable of delivering profitable solutions."[428] It also notes that it is important the government provides support by continuing negotiations on reducing barriers to the trade in education services through bilateral free trade agreements and with a clear reference to the GATS, potentially the World Trade Organisation.[429]

In contrast to the first goal of the *International Education Agenda*, which appeared to be predominantly based on cultural or social rationales and gave priority to other internationalisation activities, including providing the means for selected domestic students to travel abroad, as well as internationalising the tertiary curricula and teaching, little reference is made to such priorities with respect to the fourth goal. Finally, it is worth noting that just as economic rationales can relate to different aims as has been discussed above, different approaches and models can be chosen to achieve these aims. The first phase of the HEIGLO project also made several distinctions between those countries analysed in this sense, particularly that as quoted already, the different approaches and models chosen range "from straightforward competition to European wide international collaboration to help improve the performance of European universities generally."[430] The fourth goal of the *International Education Agenda* does seem to advocate a collaborative approach to some extent, but the overall aim is clearly to improve the competitiveness of the New Zealand export education industry.

4.2.5. Conclusion

A trend at the national level in New Zealand has been identified in previous research and was discussed above, namely the shift away from the post World War II internationalisation policies largely based around the provision of education aid to those that are primarily driven by economic rationales and specifically aimed at the trade in education services. It has also been discussed that this trend which began in the late 1980s seems to be persisting in national policies for the internationalisation of tertiary education in New Zealand. While the policies discussed above, ranging from the *Export Education in New Zealand: A strategic approach to developing the sector* document released by the Ministry of Education in August 2001 to the *Strengthening International*

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[427] *Ibid*, 34.
[428] *Ibid.*
[429] *Ibid*, 37.
[430] Luijten-Lub and others, "International Comparative Analysis," in *On Cooperation and Competition*, 273.

Education package released in April 2005, deal with or touch on the other dimensions and potential wider benefits of internationalisation, the overwhelming focus remained on the trade in education services and attracting foreign fee paying students for economic purposes within this context, and the overall aim is clearly to improve the international competitiveness of the New Zealand export education industry in this sense, albeit in a more strategic, systematic and sustainable way.

The *International Education Agenda* refers to all four categories of rationales identified by De Wit and Knight and discussed in chapter two when it talks of the multiple dimensions of international education. However, various rationales are often put forward to justify internationalisation and as this thesis stresses, it is important to look beyond the rhetoric. Having analysed the *International Education Agenda 2007-2012* it appears that economic rationales remain the dominant underlying rationales at the national level for the internationalisation of tertiary education in New Zealand and while it is not concerned exclusively with export education, particularly in terms of the first goal, the main focus still appears to be on the trade in education services and attracting foreign fee paying students in this sense. However, there does seem to be increasing recognition of not only the direct economic benefits this brings, but also the more general and long-term political and economic benefits. The international students that come to New Zealand are expected to become ongoing advocates for New Zealand, who can be useful in terms of attracting more foreign fee paying students, but also with respect to future business, trade and research relationships. It is also expected that New Zealand employers will benefit from the talents of international students during and after study, and therefore international students are deemed useful in terms of compensating for any particular shortages in the labour market. Another more general and long-term economic benefit is the hope that international students will contribute to the aim of improving New Zealand's research capacity. These economic rationales are reflected in a government approach based on resourcing the direct marketing of New Zealand education generally, as well as promoting the attractiveness of New Zealand education internationally through education diplomacy. Although, as has already been identified in recent policies, there also appears to be increasing recognition of the importance of enriching the overall experiences of international students and improving the quality of education offered in this sense.

Politically there is still reference to the importance of development assistance activities, but significant reference is also made to building international education relationships for commercial purposes. Academic rationales are also given significant attention, particularly in terms of improving the quality of education. However, this does not

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appear to be considered an end on its own, and improving the quality of education offered, as well as enriching the overall experiences of international students while in New Zealand, are clearly linked to achieving the economic benefits discussed above. Apart from economic rationales, the second most dominant rationales underlying the *International Education Agenda 2007-2012* appear to be social and cultural. There seems to be a genuine desire to create intercultural understanding and international awareness among students. This is referred to particularly in the first goal of the *International Education Agenda*, and as was mentioned in the above discussion of this goal, while there are almost certainly expected to be long-term economic benefits if New Zealand students are equipped to thrive in an inter-connected world, this does not appear to be the primary motivation. However, this is just one of four goals and, similarly to the discussion in chapter three regarding the second *Tertiary Education Strategy*, this goal, the cultural and social rationales underlying it, and the government priority of national identity to which it is linked are not unimportant. Nevertheless, they are clearly considered secondary to the economic rationales that dominate the subsequent goals and the overriding government priority of economic transformation.

The unstructured interview with Paul Lister largely corroborated these findings. According to Lister, although there had been plans previously, the government was only starting to become extremely interested in what sort of internationalisation policy it might have around the time he began at the Ministry of Education's International Division in 2003. He noted that the significant increase in international student numbers in New Zealand in the previous two or three years was one of the main drivers for this. Lister agreed that the main focus of internationalisation policies at the national level continued to be attracting foreign fee paying students for economic purposes, but that there is more recognition of the more general and long-term benefits in this sense, as well as increasing recognition of the other dimensions and potential wider benefits of internationalisation. He also noted that initiatives aimed at enriching the experiences of international students, such as the introduction of the *Code of Practice for the Pastoral Care of International Students* were seen at the national level as necessary protections and important on their own, and in the case of the *Code of Practice*, he thought it only dawned on people after its introduction that this did in fact constitute quite a good marketing tool. Finally, he made an interesting point in terms of New Zealand's commitment to international education aid. Despite the shift away from the post World War II internationalisation policies largely based around the provision of education aid to those that are primarily driven by economic rationales and specifically aimed at the trade in education services, he wondered whether any less money was being committed to international education aid today. Indeed, as discussed above, through NZAID, New

Zealand still makes significant contributions to education development assistance activities. However, this contribution has been superseded by the promotion of other activities, particularly attracting foreign fee paying students for economic purposes.[431]

In summary, just as the *Export Education* 2001 report and the other national policies for the internationalisation of tertiary education in New Zealand discussed above dealt with or touched on the other dimensions and potential wider benefits of internationalisation so does the *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*. The *International Education Agenda* perhaps takes this further with the first goal in particular appearing to be based predominantly on social and cultural rationales. There is also recognition as part of this goal of the importance of other internationalisation activities both at home and abroad, in addition to attracting foreign fee paying students which has continued to be the primary focus of recent national policies. Nevertheless, despite this and the fact that the subsequent goals refer to the desire to enrich the overall experiences of international students, improve the quality of education offered, and also reaffirm commitments to international education aid, just as previous research and the discussion above identified that the overwhelming focus of recent national policies remained on the trade in education services and attracting foreign fee paying students for economic purposes within this context, and the overall aim is clearly to improve the international competitiveness of the New Zealand export education industry in this sense, albeit in a more strategic, systematic and sustainable way, the *International Education Agenda* also appears to continue this trend and to be primarily driven by economic rationales. However, there is increasing reference to the more general and long-term benefits in this sense, while reference is also made to enhancing the capability of New Zealand institutions to provide transnational education.

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[431] Paul Lister, interview by Will Shannon, 23 July 2009, Wellington, New Zealand.

Chapter Five

Comparative Analysis

5.1. Introduction

The findings presented in the previous chapter show that in line with the trend identified in previous research and reaffirmed in the first phase of the HEIGLO project, current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand are primarily driven by economic rationales. This chapter elaborates on the findings of the first phase of the HEIGLO project in more detail, comparing the findings presented in the previous chapter with them. This is important because as mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, by comparing the findings with similar research of the same phenomenon in a different setting the ability to generalise and thus, improve the external validity of this thesis is improved. However, in this sense, it is also important that this comparison acknowledges any specific differences or similarities with certain countries. Given the inevitable differences and similarities in context with the specific European countries analysed as part of the HEIGLO project, while the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in New Zealand appear to be in line with the general trend identified in the first phase of the HEIGLO project in that they are primarily driven by economic rationales, it is perhaps inevitable that New Zealand's national policies can be compared to certain countries more closely than others. In making a general conclusion, this does need to be acknowledged.

5.2. Comparative analysis with the findings of the selected European countries analysed as part of the HEIGLO project

In terms of the economic rationales for internationalisation, the first phase of the HEIGLO project showed that the national policies in those countries analysed gave increasing attention to attracting foreign fee paying students and the provision of transnational education within the context of the trade in education services. The UK is shown to have taken the lead in this sense. Indeed, it notes that in Europe, the UK has taken the lead in the development of an explicit export and trade agenda for higher education.[432] Within this context, there is recognition of the wider and more long-term economic benefits. Indeed, the chapter of *On Cooperation and Competition* focussing on

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[432] Gareth Williams and Kelly Coate, "The United Kingdom," in *On Cooperation and Competition* (see note 11), 116.

the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in the UK concludes by stating that "the government's over-riding concern with economic competitiveness is largely driving the agenda."[433] In particular, it notes that through a series of White Papers released on competitiveness since 1993, "the government has promoted the role of education in producing a highly qualified workforce able to compete on a global level."[434]

The UK chapter of *On Cooperation and Competition* notes that in 1997, the *Dearing Report* on higher education was released and that this report recognised that in the UK higher education is a major export industry in its own right. However, it notes that the *Dearing Report* also "recognised globalisation as a major influence on the labour market and economy of the UK, and argued that higher education will have an important role in producing knowledge and technical skills for global corporations."[435] The UK chapter also refers to a major and widely circulated speech by the Secretary of State for Education and Employment, David Blunkett in February 2000 where linked to this and based on similar reasoning, he made the statement that "learning has become big business."[436] In addition, it refers to another recent government White Paper on the *Future of Higher Education* which reinforced such views.[437] It presents an argument put forward by Peter Roberts that in the future scenario pictured by the *Dearing Report*, higher education in the UK will "become a global international service and tradable commodity."[438] In terms of the internationalisation of higher education, the UK chapter of *On Cooperation and Competition* notes that economic rationales and such rhetoric seem "to have been pushed further in the UK than in any other country, except possibly Australia."[439] Indeed, it is noted that with regard to the *Dearing Report*, "one member of the committee, asked in a seminar about the committee's neglect of the political, cultural and educational rationales for internationalisation, made it clear that they had hardly entered into the committee's thinking at all."[440]

In the UK especially, economic rationales certainly appear to be the dominant driver for the internationalisation of higher education at the national level. However, *On Cooperation and Competition* did indeed show that, "most of the other countries in the study are moving in a similar direction but more slowly."[441] It concluded that the trend

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[433] *Ibid,* 135.
[434] *Ibid,* 117.
[435] *Ibid.*
[436] *Ibid.*
[437] *Ibid.*
[438] *Ibid.*
[439] *Ibid,* 118.
[440] *Ibid,* 117.
[441] Luijten-Lub and others, "International Comparative Analysis," in *On Cooperation and Competition*, 273.

towards more economically orientated rationales was persisting and that policies based on competition were increasing.[442] Nevertheless, as has already been discussed, the first phase of the HEIGLO project did make several distinctions between those countries analysed, including that economic rationales may relate to different aims. Indeed, it showed that distinctions can be made between national policies that are directed at improving the competitiveness of the national higher education sector itself, specifically in terms of recruiting foreign fee paying students, and those that are designed to enhance the international competitiveness of the national economy.[443] The latter aim is particularly relevant where "higher education is also seen as having a role in increasing national economic competitiveness generally."[444] It also found that the national reports include many examples of both of these policy rationales. For example, in the UK both of these elements seem to coexist. Indeed, like New Zealand, in most of the countries analysed there is recognition of not just the direct economic benefits, but also the more general and long-term benefits closely linked to enhancing the international competitiveness of the national economy.

Despite the trend reaffirmed in the first phase of the HEIGLO project towards national policies for the internationalisation of higher education increasingly driven by economic rationales and aimed at attracting foreign fee paying students and the provision of transnational education within the context of the trade in education services, it noted that interest in cooperation is also apparent. In this sense, it found that different approaches and models have been chosen to achieve the above aims. These were found to range from straightforward competition to European wide international collaboration to help improve the performance of European universities generally.[445] In certain countries international cooperation was found to constitute a significant goal on its own, for example, it concluded that in Germany "international co-operation still forms the core process of the German higher education and science policy on internationalization."[446] However, it also held that "on the other hand, the international marketing of German HE and sciences is a new steering instrument in German HE and science politics."[447] The first phase of the HEIGLO project also found that whereas in the UK especially, economic rationales appear to be the dominant driver for the internationalisation of higher education and there is little recognition of the other rationales for it, in other countries these rationales still receive attention.

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[442] *Ibid.*
[443] *Ibid*.
[444] *Ibid,* 252.
[445] *Ibid,* 273*.*
[446] *Ibid,* 251.
[447] *Ibid.*

It seems New Zealand's current national policies for internationalisation can be compared more closely to a country like the Netherlands in this sense. Indeed, in the Netherlands economic rationales were found to still be the dominant underlying rationales.[448] The chapter of *On Cooperation and Competition* focussing on the national policies for the internationalisation of higher education in the Netherlands noted that accordingly significant attention was given to the marketing and promotion of Dutch higher education with the aim of attracting foreign fee paying students, but distinctions were found between short-term and long-term economic benefits.[449] In particular, it found a distinction between attracting international students for income generation and attracting them to compensate for national shortages in particular sectors, while in terms of long-term economic benefits it also found that international students are expected to become ambassadors for the Netherlands, as well as contribute to its research capacity.[450] Internationalisation was also seen as a way to prepare "Dutch students for their future roles in the international knowledge economy as well as the international labour market and international aspects of their future jobs."[451] As appears to be the case increasingly in New Zealand and indeed, as exists in the UK, there is recognition of the more general and long-term economic benefits of attracting foreign fee paying students. However, less like the UK, but again similar to New Zealand, there is recognition of the other dimensions and the potential wider benefits of internationalisation.

Indeed, academic and cultural rationales were also found to play a role in Dutch national policies for the internationalisation of higher education. Although, as is the case in New Zealand, the first phase of the HEIGLO project did find that these rationales are often combined with economic rationales. For example, the Netherlands chapter of *On Cooperation and Competition* notes that the quality of higher education in relation to internationalisation is considered important.[452] This is because in order to be competitive on the higher education market, education needs to be of good quality, and international competition is thus expected to contribute to the quality of education.[453] Moreover, internationalisation and an international orientation of higher education itself are also expected to help improve the quality of the education.[454] Meanwhile, from a cultural perspective it refers to the belief that the "intercultural experiences of citizens increase

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[448] Anneke Luijten-Lub, "The Netherlands," in *On Cooperation and Competition* (see note 11), 171.
[449] *Ibid.*
[450] *Ibid.*
[451] *Ibid.*
[452] *Ibid,* 172.
[453] *Ibid.*
[454] *Ibid.*

mutual understanding and social cohesion,"[455] and it notes that the Dutch government subscribes to the importance of social cohesion in this sense.[456] Within this context, while the general aim is to make Dutch higher education as attractive as possible to foreign fee paying students, again as with New Zealand, there is also recognition of the importance of other internationalisation activities both at home and abroad. Emphasis is shown to be placed on gaining international experience through student mobility and exchange, but also obtaining this at home by meeting foreigners on exchange in the Netherlands and having access to internationally orientated instructors, adequate provision of education in foreign languages and cultures, and an internationally orientated education generally.[457]

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[455] *Ibid.*
[456] *Ibid.*
[457] *Ibid.*

Chapter Six

Conclusions

6.1. Introduction

As mentioned in its introduction, the purpose of this thesis has been to refine prior research. The available research suggests that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation and indeed, the first phase of the HEIGLO project reaffirmed that economic rationales increasingly drive internationalisation policies at the national level in those countries analysed. This thesis has provided an opportunity to corroborate this research and assess whether the same is true in New Zealand. Indeed, it has shown that while New Zealand's current national policies for the internationalisation of higher education can be compared more closely with a country like the Netherlands where other rationales still receive attention, in line with the general trend identified in previous research and reaffirmed in the first phase of the HEIGLO project, they are primarily driven by economic rationales.

6.2. Main effects

Why does this matter? This thesis argues that national policies for the internationalisation of higher education and indeed, broader contextual factors are important. Indeed, it is based on the expectation that in New Zealand the internationalisation policies and activities of higher education institutions are strongly influenced by regulative, normative and cultural-cognitive factors, and national policies for the internationalisation of higher education form an important part of this institutional environment that influence the actual process of internationalisation that is taking place at the institutional level. It remains too early to determine the main effects of the *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*. However, in terms of the general trend at the national level which began in the late 1980s and seems to be persisting in recent policies, namely towards internationalisation policies primarily driven by economic rationales and specifically aimed at the trade in education services, it has already been identified that the proportion of international students relative to the total number of students enrolled at tertiary education institutions in New Zealand has increased dramatically in recent times. Indeed, OECD statistics show an increase from 3.7 percent

in 1998 to 13.5 percent in 2003.[458] On this basis, it has been mentioned that relative to its size New Zealand is one of top destinations for international students.

In absolute terms, the available data shows that international student numbers reached their peak in 2004 when there were 50,442 international students enrolled at tertiary education institutions in New Zealand.[459] This was the result of a period of steady growth, which culminated in a dramatic surge beginning in 2000.[460] This dramatic increase seems to mirror the overwhelming focus of recent national policies that remained on the trade in education services and attracting foreign fee paying students within this context. However, Paul Lister did suggest that the government was only starting to become interested in what sort of internationalisation policy it might have around the time of this increase and as a result of it. In any case, the overall aim of recent policies is clearly to improve the international competitiveness of the New Zealand export education industry, albeit in a more strategic, systematic and sustainable way, and while the number of international students has declined in recent years, this appears to largely be the result of external factors, especially a change in Chinese government policy, not the effect of a change in the direction of national policies in New Zealand.[461] In fact, this more systematic and strategic approach is perhaps in part a result of the susceptibility of the New Zealand export education industry to such external factors and a stated desire to make this industry more sustainable. Indeed, the *International Education Agenda* notes that the recent variability in international student numbers "emphasises the need for New Zealand to diversify source countries, and to balance its heavy reliance on onshore delivery – that is, students coming to New Zealand – with investment in other modes of delivery."[462] Subsequently, it is already possible to see changes in the dynamics of the export education industry in terms of the source countries and levels of study of international students.

Perhaps not incidentally, while the number of Chinese students has declined significantly since 2004, at the same time there have been steady increases in the number of

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[458] Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2005*, 267.

[459] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Provider-based enrolments,* ENR.2.

[460] In 1994 there were 6,827 international students enrolled in tertiary education institutions in New Zealand. This increased to 11,856 in 1999 and jumped to 16,586 in 2000, before surging to 26,236 in 2001, 40,825 in 2002, and 47,116 in 2003. *Ibid*.

[461] Since their 2004 peak, international student numbers have dropped consistently. In 2005 there were 47,366 international students enrolled in tertiary education institutions in New Zealand, in 2006 there were 42,652, and in 2007 there were 39,960. *Ibid*.
Meanwhile the number of Chinese students enrolled in New Zealand tertiary education institutions dropped from a peak of 30,439 in 2004 to 27,072 in 2005, 21,500 in 2006, and 16,389 in 2007. *Ibid,* ENR.27.

[462] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *International Education Agenda 2007-2012*, 24.

students from other countries, such as India.[463] This increase coincided with the release of the specific *Education Strategy for India 2006-2009*, which is another example of the more strategic approach being adopted. In terms of levels of study, the recent decline in international students appears to have largely occurred at levels 1-3 on the New Zealand Register of Quality Assured Qualifications, as well as at the Diploma level.[464] The number of international students enrolled at other levels has remained relatively stable, except at the Doctorate level where there has been a continuous increase which has accelerated recently.[465] This illustrates the recent investment in Doctorate scholarships for international students initiated in the two packages released by the Ministry of Education in 2004 and 2005 discussed above.

In line with the general trend in recent national policies and the overall increase in the number of international students enrolled at tertiary education institutions in New Zealand, the direct economic contribution of the export education industry to the New Zealand economy has also increased. The value of the New Zealand export education industry has been referred to previously in this thesis, but to briefly elaborate further, the effect of the export education industry on Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was estimated at $545 million in 1999.[466] By 2001 it was estimated that the effect on GDP had more than doubled to $1.25 billion,[467] while in 2004 it was estimated that the economic contribution of the export education industry to GDP had reached $2.21 billion.[468] A recent media release by Education New Zealand argues that New Zealand's export education earnings constitute a higher proportion of GDP than any of the other main destination countries for international students.[469] Just over half of the 2004 earnings ($1.194 billion) were accounted for by international students studying at public tertiary education institutions, while $187 million came from international students studying at private tertiary education institutions.[470] Based on these estimates, the overall direct economic benefit of attracting foreign fee paying students to enrol in New Zealand tertiary education institutions was $1.381 billion in 2004. $504 million of this

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[463] In 2003, there were 2,032 Indian students enrolled in New Zealand tertiary education institutions. The number declined to 1,942 in 2004 and 1,886 in 2005 before climbing steadily to 2,136 in 2006 and 3,027 in 2007. New Zealand Ministry of Education, *Provider-based enrolments,* ENR.27.

[464] In 2002 there were 12,400 international students enrolled in levels 1-3, while in 2007 there were 4,767. In 2004 there were 15,524 international students enrolled at the Diploma level, in 2007 there were 9,336. *Ibid,* ENR.28.

[465] In 2004 there were 572 international students enrolled in Doctorates. This increased to 691 in 2005, 1,079 in 2006, and 1,515 in 2007. *Ibid*.

[466] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *The Economic Impact of Foreign Fee-Paying Students* (2006)*, http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/__data/assets/pdf_file/0003/15267/economic-impact-report.pdf*, 1.

[467] *Ibid.*

[468] *Ibid.*

[469] Education New Zealand, *New Zealand 'punching above its weight' in Export Education, http://www.educationnz.org.nz/comm/Mediarealeases/Punching%20Above%20Weight-26-11-08.pdf*.

[470] New Zealand Ministry of Education, *The Economic Impact of Foreign Fee-Paying Students,* 1.

constituted tuition fees most of which went directly to tertiary education institutions, although $2.3 million was taken in government levies, specifically the Export Education Provider Levy.[471]

The other direct economic benefit is of course the money that international students put into the wider economy during their time in New Zealand. In terms of international students enrolled at tertiary education institutions, it is estimated that their total expenditure on other goods and services (living costs) constituted $731 billion in 2004.[472] For the purpose of these estimates, the amount spent by institutions to service the needs of foreign fee paying students is also taken into account,[473] for example, the amount spent on energy costs. The spending of wages and salaries earned by people employed as a result of the export education industry, including those employed in the other industries which service it is also taken into account.[474] In 2008, despite the decline in the number of international students in recent years, the direct economic contribution of the overall education export industry to New Zealand's GDP is still currently estimated at approximately $2.1 billion, while for the first time New Zealand's offshore education earnings were measured as constituting an estimated $70 million.[475] However, it is not known exactly how much of this came from the provision of transnational education specifically at the tertiary level. Finally, it should be noted again that the *International Education Agenda* promoted sustainable growth in New Zealand's overall export education earnings to $2.5 billion annually in the medium term and it will be interesting to monitor whether this is achieved.

It is difficult to measure the more general and long-term economic benefits increasingly sought in national policies. Nevertheless, these clearly align closely with the importance that is given to ensuring international competitiveness in the knowledge economy in broader higher education policies, such as the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12.* Indeed, this increasing reference to the more general and long-term economic benefits is closely linked to enhancing the international competitiveness of the national economy as a whole. However, it seems that internationalisation can offer much more. While there is reference to other rationales and activities these are clearly considered to be of secondary importance to economic rationales, particularly those benefits sought from attracting foreign fee paying students, whether direct economic benefits, or the more general and long-term benefits. Above all, this thesis has intended to contribute to an

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[471] *Ibid*, 3.
[472] *Ibid*.
[473] *Ibid,* 4
[474] *Ibid*.
[475] Education New Zealand and New Zealand Ministry of Education, *The Economic Impact of Export Education* (2008)*, http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/__data/assets/pdf_file/0007/35368/EconomicImpactReport08 .pdf*, 1.

improved conception of the phenomenon of increasing internationalisation in higher education from which informed discussion and critical debate about its future can take place, including perhaps discussing an alternative vision.

6.3.   An alternative vision?

One possible alternative vision is the pursuit of full internationalisation, specifically the creation of truly international institutions where the recruitment of international students, the facilitation of reciprocal student exchange, and the promotion of internationalisation at home are all important and complementary activities driven not by economic reason, but instead based primarily on academic, social and cultural rationales. This vision presupposes a change in the national direction more generally. With regard to universities, as discussed previously, it was envisioned by Humboldt that the modern university should fulfil an important, albeit indirect, social function based on research or the production of knowledge, alongside teaching or its dissemination and acquisition.[476] These knowledge functions of the university were intended to carry a critical function and the idea of the modern university was based upon the principle of *bildung,* whereby knowledge acquisition is not merely a product or an end in itself, but instead a process achieved through research and essential to defining national culture in the case of the modern university.[477] As discussed, this national cultural mission was the *raison d'etre* of the modern university.[478] Internationalisation and this ideal are not mutually exclusive. Wilhelm von Humboldt was himself a wandering student and supported student mobility.[479] *A History of the University in Europe* notes that in 1810, he "successfully pleaded with the king of Prussia to restore freedom to study abroad by repealing the prohibitory orders of previous reigns."[480] Indeed, there seem to be definite benefits of internationalisation for the social function advocated by Humboldt, especially related to a vision of full internationalisation. After all, Kehm and Teichler's comments on the limitations of student mobility on its own should be taken into account.

However, this ideal has undergone significant change. In short, as Michael Peters and Roberts note, "the knowledge functions have become even more important economically."[481] This has led to the situation identified with regard to the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12* in New Zealand, whereby the overall vision is dictated by the rules of the global market and directed towards ensuring international competitiveness in the knowledge economy. As discussed, those social aims identified

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[476] Peters and Roberts, *University Futures*, 126.
[477] Readings, *The University in Ruins,* 62-88.
[478] *Ibid*, 3.
[479] De Ridder-Symoens, "Mobility," in *A History of the University in Europe*, vol. 2, 446.
[480] *Ibid*.
[481] Peters and Roberts, *University Futures*, 126.

are not articulated clearly and play a secondary or supplementary role. The idea of the modern university has changed in this sense, and an alternative vision of internationalisation based primarily on academic, social and cultural rationales would require a significant rethink of this idea at the national level. This leads to further questions beyond the scope of this paper, but to conclude, the nature of this thesis has been unapologetically descriptive. It is designed to contribute to the foundational body of knowledge that exists in relation to the internationalisation of higher education. It is hoped that this thesis will be read by policy makers, institutional leaders and fellow higher education researchers, as well as anyone with an interest in the internationalisation of higher education or higher education more generally. However, this work only constitutes the beginning. It is important that research considers its findings alongside wider questions. Indeed, further and more general research would be useful, in particular a futures study which postulates whether the idea of the modern university in New Zealand is likely to continue to evolve in its current direction and what this might look like in years to come, as well as discussing potential alternative visions which transcend economic reason and the idea of utility within the knowledge economy, including the role internationalisation could serve.

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