ABSTRACT

The author proposes that economic regionalism may be a precursor to the development of educational regionalism. Economic and educational regionalism are perhaps necessary steps on the path towards true internationalization of economic and educational policies. He explores recent developments in the Caribbean and European Union as examples of how the spread of economic cooperation has contributed significantly towards the development of resource sharing, student and scholar exchange programs, and bi-lingual educational programs within these regions. He then discusses the correlations between these examples and recent events in North America since the advent of NAFTA. In closing, the author suggests that we may someday see a University of North America, a multi-campus system of higher education institutions, governed much like the University of California system, but spread over a much larger geographic region (i.e. the entire continent of North America). We may already be witnessing the laying of groundwork for such an endeavor in initiatives such as the newly implemented North American Mobility in Higher Education program, sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education's Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE), the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade and Human Resources Development of Canada, and the University Development branch of Mexico's Ministry of Education.

"The nation state has served as the highest level of aggregation in any one system of higher education. This picture, however, is changing."

— Guy Neave, European Journal of Education (1990)¹

The argument presented in this paper stems from observations of the relationship between economic trends and educational policies. Economic regionalism is the trend of the present and future, as seen in such mechanisms as NAFTA, ASEAN, and the European Union. Indeed, the state of any one nation's economy is seldom due solely to that particular country's policies.² With present and future growth in the globalization of capital and knowledge, national economic policies are forced to be international in scope and direction, and economic regionalism is a main step in this direction. As economic policy becomes regional, so too will educational policy become regional, as the two have become inextricably linked. Educational policies in most nations are
increasingly driven by economic agendas. Burton Clark’s (1984) discussion of the impact of market forces on systems of higher education illustrates one of the main links between economics and education, a link which I believe will compel higher education policy to follow in the footsteps of economic regionalism.

In this essay, I explore two examples of regionalism in different stages, to illustrate the relationship between a nation and a region where shared economic goals and objectives have begun to blur the distinction between the two. Then I compare the developments in these regions with the direction of recent events in North America since the advent of NAFTA. One purpose of this essay is to deliver the message that a proactive agenda towards regionalization of higher education policy is needed in order to maintain and enhance our national position in the global community. In the end, I predict that such a movement will follow the direction in which NAFTA has already begun to take our country, and propose that we investigate the possibilities of opening a University of North America, a multi-campus system of higher education administered jointly by the governments of Canada, Mexico and the United States.

I originally set out to discuss Clark Kerr’s notion of the growing conflict between internationalized learning and the national provision and direction of higher education. By comparing certain parts of the globe, I found a pattern in terms of regional cooperation that seemed to make this conflict a little less sticky. Thus, it seemed clear that some examples should be presented to scholars and students of higher education in our country, in hopes of contributing to the debate over the nature of United States’ academic involvement on a global scale. The areas in which regionalism seems most salient include institutional structures, relationships between institutions and national governments, the academic profession, and student mobility. At the very least, a comparative exploration of these topics can at least broaden perspectives and suggest different ways of seeing key issues.

Before I present these examples, however, I must first discuss my definition of regionalism in the context of internationalizing economic and educational policies. It is hoped that the reader of this essay will come away with an understanding of how regionalism may be a required middle step between nationalism and internationalism in developing the goals and objectives of national systems and institutions of higher education. In addition, it is hoped that this essay will foster more questions about the complexities and seemingly ungrounded reliance on the ‘national interest’ to tell us what’s best for our institutions of higher education. As Clark Kerr notes, “we live in a world where the nation state has become the dominant force in human governance, and also where the worldwide advancement of learning has become the single most influential factor affecting the human condition…” The former is influential within lines drawn on a map, while the latter’s influence knows no boundaries. It is with this distinction in mind that we begin.
I. A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Regionalism Defined versus Nationalism

Over the years, national governments have become increasingly keen to make use of higher education in the pursuit of economic growth and national welfare. Indeed, in many nations, concern has grown over issues such as supplying the corporate sector with graduates who possess the skills necessary to function efficiently and effectively in a world of growing technological sophistication. Such concerns have, in many countries, fueled a slow-burning fire of skepticism towards the efficiency and productivity of higher education in general, and a resulting growth in demand for accountability measures and policies has been seen worldwide.

At the same time, economic goals and objectives in many of these nations have evolved from being nationalistic in nature to acquiring a more regionalistic focus. It would seem that the death of nationalistic fervor is a precursor to regional cooperation towards economic and social objectives. Perhaps some contributors to the demise of nationalistic fervor in these regions have been the globalization of capital, the rapid growth in international human mobility, patterns of scientific interaction, foreign student and faculty exchanges, and international military cooperation through United Nations intervention activities. The European Union, ASEAN and NAFTA are but a few prime examples of how nations are moving towards regional economic and political cooperation, and away from centuries of nationalistic fervor. Examining the policy trends in economics and education together led me to suggest that higher education policies in these nations, being tied (in various forms) to economic policies, must also be transformed from a nationalistic to a more regionalistic approach. Although true internationalism is extremely difficult to imagine or conceptualize in today’s world, with the globalization of capital, knowledge production and transference, and technology and communications, a new international sharing of involvement and resources in higher education systems cannot be very far behind. Table 1 gives a visual summary to my conceptualization of how nationalism, regionalism, and internationalism might look in terms of economic and educational cooperation.

Table 1: Stages of Internationalization in Higher Education and Economic Competition

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<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Nationalism</th>
<th>Regionalism</th>
<th>Internationalism</th>
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<td>Limited or no cross-national student or scholar exchange, language of instruction is not well understood outside national borders, limited or no contact with literature not indigenous to nation, little if any cooperation with other nations towards common educational or economic goals; nation against nation economic competition</td>
<td>Cross-national student and scholarly exchange within geographic region are encouraged, languages of instruction are same at most institutions throughout region, national governments promote sharing of resources and recognition of shared goals and objectives for all institutions in the region; region against region economic competition</td>
<td>Global exchanges of students, faculty and all educational resources, support of educational programs in one region by other regions promoted as benefit to entire global community; limited economic competition between regions or nations</td>
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It is important at this point to mention some particular examples where attempts were made at developing educational regionalism, and which eventually failed. The University of East Africa, for example, had campuses in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, but the whole thing fell entirely apart. The Arabian Gulf nations never even got achieved the development of a formal institution, although there were considerable efforts towards a regional higher education initiative. However, in reviewing cases such as these, it seems clear that economic cooperation was not first introduced and developed in the region, which leads me to suggest that this may be a necessary precursor before any successful educational cooperation can be achieved. The social and political groundwork for a nation’s movement towards internationalism seems most developed in countries which have progressed through, or at least entered, a period of economic regionalism. In this essay, I discuss three examples of educational regionalism at different levels of development, all of which have come into being by impetus of economic necessities. The nations of the Caribbean, with their relatively small resource base, could never maintain individual institutions of higher education, so they came together to develop and support regional institutions such as the University of the West Indies. In recent decades, institutions in this region have aggressively sought international linkages with institutions in others, mostly Western industrialized nations. These nations are in a period of regionalism which I have chosen to label post-collective.

In Europe, regionalism in the form of the European Union has become an impetus for educational reform, calling for modifications of many nations’ higher education systems in order to produce the manpower to successfully propel the EU into the next century as a strong competitor in the global economy. In the 1992-93 academic year, there were a total of 504 Joint European Projects in operation in 11 member countries of the EC. I have chosen to call the period of regionalism described by the current initiatives and trends of these nations as collective.

In the United States, regionalism is in a foundling stage that began with the advent of economic agreements such as the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Of the three regions discussed, North America is the least regional in scope and direction at this time. In describing the current North American approach to higher education, I have chosen to use the term pre-collective.

<table>
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<th>Stage of Regionalism</th>
<th>Regional Example</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-collective</td>
<td>North America</td>
<td>Somewhat nationalistic, limited nationwide support for educational programs either within or outside region.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective</td>
<td>European Community</td>
<td>Public and private support for sharing ideas, scholars, students and resources throughout region.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-collective</td>
<td>The Caribbean</td>
<td>Established organizational and administrative structure for sharing resources, scholars and students at regional institutions.</td>
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I do not propose that movement from nationalism to regionalism to internationalism is in any way a linear process. A linear image would tend to ignore the effect that external forces have on propelling a nation toward internationalization of its economic and higher education policies, as well as the effects of isolationism and xenophobia within any given political system. Rather, the process may be recursive— as nations may find themselves walking in their own footsteps, one can only hope that the second or third time around their leaders may approach the process with new learning and different tactics. As well, it is worth mentioning here that universities in nations with limited economic resources have far stronger incentives for developing and nurturing relationships with wealthier counterparts than many U.S. colleges and universities. This presents a significant challenge for any efforts to pursue a policy of educational resource sharing throughout North America, although if one views the world as one huge and incredibly diverse classroom, where we are constantly learning from each other, this challenge seems less overwhelming.

I have defined these three forms or stages of regionalism purely arbitrarily and for explanatory purposes only, and thus they are readily open to debate. However, my purpose in defining them as such is to offer a visual presentation of the different forms which regional interdependence may take place in terms of higher education. The word interdependence implies a greater mutuality, that the relationship is between entities with some long-term need for each other, as opposed to many current and previous mindsets which governed separate autonomous entities with no particular common interest. In essence, regionalism can be seen as a multifaceted spectrum, premised on a platform of economic cooperation and interdependence, and a stage without which internationalism might not be achieved. Thus, a closer look at how regionalism is nurtured and developed in different contexts may shed some light on how internationalism may someday be a part of our higher education systems, and indeed our everyday lives.
II. EXAMPLES OF REGIONALISM
The Caribbean - A Post-collective Higher Education Approach

As in many Asian and African nations, the former Western European colonies in the Caribbean and South Pacific have deep Western roots in their higher education systems. However, unlike many developing nations elsewhere, the national governments in the Caribbean states have historically not been involved to a large extent in developing national systems of higher education, Jamaica being the most probable exception. While many church and non-governmental organizations initiated some local programs of higher education, most often in theology and medicine, for many years there was little involvement of the government of these nations in the provision and direction of higher education. Instead, many institutional arrangements were made with the mindset of shared regional resources, student populations, and goals and objectives.

Initially, regional provision of higher education in the Caribbean and South Pacific was based upon the premise that no one small state could realistically hope to found and sustain a university from its own resources. Thus, in 1948 the University College of the West Indies was created (to become the University of the West Indies in 1962) to serve 14 countries in the region. Similarly, in 1968 the University of the South Pacific was established by 11 participating small states in the region. This has now increased to 12 member countries with the recent inclusion of the Marshall Islands. For the most part, these institutions have served the populations of the contributing nations in much the same regards as would an institution within each nation’s boundaries, but with only a fraction of the drain on limited local resources. The sharing of resources as a component of regionalism in the Caribbean may provide an adequate model for nations in other parts of the world who now find their national systems or institutions of higher education costing more than their limited resources can support. It is the very small size of the Caribbean nations’ individual resource bases which drives them by necessity towards regional economic cooperation as well as international linkages with institutions of higher education in other parts of the globe.

For an example of these international linkages, consider the agreement between Sir Arthur Lewis Community College (SALCC) in St. Lucia and the University of Wisconsin. Staff from the University of Wisconsin have been contracted to teach in SALCC’s Bachelor’s of Education program, while staff from SALCC are facilitated in the graduate study at the University through credit transfers, accelerated programs and graduate assistantships. Another example is in the arrangement between the National University of Samoa and the United States International University, in which nine of the twenty courses offered in the NUS’s Bachelor’s of Education program are taught entirely by visiting USIU staff.

An even more comprehensive arrangement, between SALCC and St. Lawrence College of Canada, has been cited as a model for the kind of partnership that could be developed between small-state institutions and larger countries, and some have described it as the most productive and successful relationship of its kind in the Caribbean. The following two articles of the Memorandum of Understanding between Sir Arthur Lewis Community College and St. Lawrence College of Canada outlines the responsibilities of the St. Lucian and Canadian governments and the nature and value of the contributions of the two parties.
A prominent Jamaican scholar observed that in adopting “a global perspective while operating at a local level, small states are in a favored position to convert disadvantage into opportunity and move to a more central place in the continued development of human civilization.” While his argument basically centers on challenging small states to “be creative and innovative in providing for their future needs,” the salient notion for this discussion is that a global perspective is crucial for defining one’s position, and one’s opportunity, in the new world order. It is my opinion that a regional mindset may be in some form a prerequisite for the development of truly international economic policy, and in a similar vein, the development of international educational policy.

In sum, to provide higher education opportunities for their people, some Caribbean states are dealing with the constraints of size by developing multi-functional, multi-mode institutions which operate simultaneously within sub-regional and regional networks, while maintaining multiple linkages with international institutions and agencies. This regional approach for the provision of higher education has stemmed largely from economic necessity. Now we turn to look at a second form of regionalism, also driven largely by economic concerns, in the rapidly evolving European Community.

The European Union - A Collective Approach

A re-examination of the nature and purpose of higher education has become central to a Europe whose member states, while retaining their identities, are growing increasingly interdependent. A European Community without internal frontiers in the 1990s is likely to facilitate social mobility, especially if the young can learn the appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes. An education system which promotes such learning is perhaps one of the largest hurdles to regionalism, for a number of reasons. Unlike the Caribbean, Europe writ large has never been colonized, nor has it ever seen much regional cooperation until the most recent decades. Western Europe is in many respects the birthplace of nationalistic fervor as we have come to know it. For centuries, higher education systems in this region have been national in scope and direction, and most of the professoriate in these nations are employees of the civil government. Since the 1960s, the national higher education systems of Europe have been developing in centrifugal directions partly spontaneously, partly as a consequence of deliberate policy. Economic considerations have come to play a prominent role in higher education policy— as
one Eastern European scholar notes, “the relationship between higher education and industry has changed fundamentally in Western Europe since the 1970s, showing rapid increases in the influence of the latter in the policies of the former.”

Under the pressures of increasing student flows and mobility, the national mindset of governments towards higher education has been challenged, as leaders are increasingly forced to develop policies to ensure the education they offer will be attractive to students both from within and outside their borders. The recent development of the European Union marks a watershed in moving the average personal and governmental mindset in this part of the world beyond one's national borders. In the early 1990s, the European Community initiated strategies (and provided funding) for initiatives to internationalize higher education—however, it must be recognized that all of these initiatives have been regional in scope and direction. Educational opportunity programs such as TEMPUS and ERASMUS encourage a de-permeation of national boundaries for the sake of sharing ideas and resources for higher education, but are limited to within the geopolitical boundaries of the EC. Such programs underlie the belief of the Association of European Universities that “the European dimension of higher education could be developed through increased mobility, linguistic competence and institutional networking” (my emphasis).

ERASMUS has helped greatly to enhance East-West mobility of students and faculty, and has changed the average institutional mentality & orientation, particularly in Spain and Southern Europe, although Germany is one notable exception. The TEMPUS Program was formed to provide a structured way for universities in European Union countries to collaborate with partners in Eastern Europe in rebuilding higher education in the region. The main objectives of TEMPUS are and will remain in the future to promote the structural development and to facilitate the adaptation of higher education systems in the eligible countries via cooperation and interaction with partners in the members states of the EC. While contacts and cooperative agreements between Central and Western European academics and universities have always existed, these new forms of regional cooperation have already showed significant benefits to many European nations, particularly in the newly independent and democratizing nations of Central Europe, those whose membership in the EC has either been guaranteed or at minimum given a positive outlook.

Developing a mindset of regionalism, particularly regarding a nation’s educational policies, is by no means an easy task, and there are an untold number of complicated issues that must be ironed out in the process. The disbeliefs of political parties, the power of central administration, the weight of disciplinary cultures and the history of the universities in individual countries make for very different interpretations of quality, and give considerable variation both in the purpose to which quality is put in higher education as in the formal organizations put in place to uphold it. One study earlier this decade found that 57% of Europeans want schooling to continue to be a nation-state matter. And one of the most central issues in the regionalizing higher education in any part of the globe, as Neave points out, is the process of de-nationalizing diplomas.

The European Community’s offices in Brussels are currently working with the colleges and universities of member countries on such complex problems as diploma and degree equivalents, the increased mobility of students, and cross-national standards. Scholars and political leaders from many countries are cooperating to develop higher education evaluation processes that might evolve into cross-national standards of quality.
number of other issues are perhaps keeping many European policy makers awake at night. Take for example the problems associated with language and culture—in terms of foreign study, linguistic competencies in host countries pose a significant hurdle for many students, as well as whether their coursework credits will transfer back to their home institution. As well, financial transactions, or “soft money” arrangements common in many research collaboration agreements between academics in different nations, particularly East-West collaborations, present a particularly sticky economic and political challenge. In essence, regionalism is by no means a perfect world, and carries a wide variety of its own particular problems. However, the main point here is that there is without doubt a pervasive mindset throughout much of Europe that is increasingly causing the boundaries between nation-state and region to blur. This, I feel, is the trend which North America will follow, perhaps someday soon.
III. DISCUSSION
Corollaries and Comparisons with North American Higher Education

I return now to review my initial thesis. Educational policy has become linked in many specific forms to economic policy, and thus must follow in the direction economic policies goes. I have outlined my concept of a process by which nationalism eventually gives way to regionalism, which in turn will someday give way to an era of international economic and educational policies. In addition, I have given two examples of how regionalism, in different stages of development, is already evident in other parts of the world. It is my view that regionalism, in some form or another, shall someday be a part of the goals and objectives of higher education institutions throughout the United States. In fact, as I will discuss later in this section, we are perhaps already moving in that direction.

Some would argue against this suggestion, given the many contextual differences between our nation and other parts of the world. To be sure, there are certainly differences between the U.S. and the regions explored in this essay. To begin with, there are distinct definitional differences between our notion of “internationalization” compared to other parts of the world. For example, our popular definition of internationalization is that of an active verb, implying that we actively engage in a process of involving the rest of the world in what we are doing. In contrast, the Japanese consider the term ‘internationalize’ to be a passive verb, defined as a process of becoming accepted by other parts of the world.\(^\text{32}\) Indeed, it would seem that our mode of internationalization is: “Come here, and learn to do things our way.” This is not, by my definition, the product of a regional mindset. Maybe it’s just our way of doing things in the U.S., that they must be on the grandest scale possible. We have established American Universities in such places as Beirut, Berlin, and Geneva, and yet we have never considered co-sponsorship of a Mexican University in Texas or California, nor a University of Canada in Seattle.

In the United States, institutional globalization has been on the largest scale possible, where in Europe a regional view has taken place, as shown in the ERASMUS, TEMPUS, and SOCRATES programs.\(^\text{33}\) “Europeanization” has an immediacy that makes it a greater priority for European higher education leaders than “internationalization” is for U.S. educators.\(^\text{34}\) The Caribbean, with its colonial history and relatively tiny natural resource base, was compelled from the start to develop a regional approach to the provision of higher education. Part of their incentives stem from national educational demands—smaller nations must rely on the region to fill the gaps in their educational system.\(^\text{35}\) The development of a regional perspective of this sort has contributed greatly to the rise of international institutional linkages in the Caribbean, particularly between Canada and St. Lucia. As well, the stimulation of Europeanization has significantly enhanced the creation of international networks by institutions throughout Europe.\(^\text{36}\)

There are a variety of issues that can and should be addressed within the context of this discussion. I have chosen to explore four areas in which institutions of higher education in North America have a significant number of activities in common with the two regional examples discussed. These are, in no particular order of importance:

I have chosen only these four but there are surely many other arenas in which patterns of activity can be seen that enhance movement towards regionalism as defined in this essay. The issues are naturally inter-related, and I confess that my coverage of them will not be overly comprehensive, although I feel they are each worth mentioning in brief detail insofar as their relationship with the topic of regionalism in higher education is concerned. Afterwards, the final portion of this essay explores the incentives for a regional and international approach in U.S. higher education policy and offers some predictions as to how the picture may look in the next decade.

THE STRUCTURE AND POLICIES OF ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

Within the context of structure and institutional policy in higher education, there seem to be at minimum three main issues common to both the regions discussed and North America. These are the predominance of a singular model of institutional infrastructure, the issues of language and culture, and the complications of working in a foreign country. To begin with, it is noteworthy to point out that the basic model for universities in all the nations and regions studied here is Western-based in physical and curricular structure. As Altbach points out, “universities worldwide share a common culture and reality. In many basic ways, there is a convergence of institutional models and norms.” Although it may be that the common Western element found throughout these nations’ academic systems, values and institutional structures provides a significant ‘bond’ which facilitates greater cooperation and mutual understanding, it is this same institutional uniformity which may be one of the major hurdles for an institution’s ability to internationalize.

Clark (1978) suggests that differentiation of institutions should replace the drive of most institutions to effectively mirror their peers. The emphasis on equality and equity of quality should be replaced by a discourse which focuses on purpose and mission of an institution within the larger cross-national context. Some institutions, such as Boston College, have already agreed that they have much to lose by attempting to model Harvard or Stanford by building schools of medicine or engineering. Instead, BC has undergone a study to determine what it is that it does best, and how to do this better. This, I feel, is a crucial mindset for the survival of any institution, particularly in the present era of increasing competition for diminishing resources, thus concurring with Clark’s notion that institutional differentiation, and legitimating institutional roles, are two extremely important issues to address in the reform of higher education in the U.S.

Another complex issue in this discussion concerns the effects of national or social efforts to retain historical language and culture. Although English is, for the most part, the most common international language of knowledge production and transference, many nations have yet to (and indeed may never) adopt English as the nation-wide formal language of instruction. As noted in the above discussion on the European
Community, a nation’s language and culture can be quite problematic in attempts to develop regional or international higher education policies. As well, according to Crossley and Louisy, “early regional initiatives in the Pacific and Caribbean are now being criticized as having been externally imposed; the implication being that a more locally inspired regionalism would be more relevant and sustainable.”

However, despite the complexities, some institutions have met this challenge head-on. We in the United States could learn immensely from the example of Hungary, where many universities now offer full degree programs taught entirely in foreign languages, mostly in English, French and German. Mr. Tamás Lajos, a professor at Budapest Technical University and President of Hungary’s TEMPUS program feels that “these programs have dramatically increased the linguistic abilities of our faculty and have furthered vital international links, which determine where our degrees will be accepted abroad.” What are the chances of programs taught entirely in Spanish in United States institutions of higher education? While such a question is obviously rhetorical, such programs would surely be a significant part of a movement towards regionalism in higher education policy.

Another significant issue in terms of institutional infrastructure involves the effects which human resource policies that prevent international work exchanges, common in North America, have on attempts to internationalize universities. One particularly pressing concern in Eastern Europe has been a rise in ‘brain flight’ to institutions in the West—an issue which may only be resolved through improving the quality of institutions throughout all parts of Europe. However, attempts by isolationist or protectionist politicians to deter the movement of talented scholars from one country to the another are still common throughout Europe. A number of Eastern European nations are concerned over a significant rise in the emigration of many of its promising young scholars and scientists. Therefore, some politicians in these nations are thus trying to slow the process of internationalization, or even block it altogether. If the decline of political conservatism in a given nation is perhaps a significant contributor to the rise of international political orientations, then the reverse may be true—political conservatism poses resistance to movement towards regionalism or internationalism.

In general, ERASMUS has had considerable effects on the individual scholars and students participating, but comparably less so on the policies of each participating institution. SOCRATES, a newer program, is targeted towards these very weaknesses of the ERASMUS program, including broadly defined agreements for sharing the support of academic work and providing incentives for Eastern scholars to return to their country of origin after their work abroad. The main issue here is that for academic professionals to work in other nations within their region, human resource policies must move away from a focus that protects nationals from losing jobs to foreigners—a concept which would not be very well-received in many political and social circles in our nation at present.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE STATE AND HIGHER EDUCATION

In many countries, the national government has seen fit to steer higher education policy in a direction that (it is hoped) is in the 'national interest'. But what does this term really mean? A government is, in most countries, made of either dictators or representatives, people with human beliefs, interests, strengths and weaknesses, and each with their own personal biases concerning educational policies. Where, then, does the rhetorical 'national interest' become an apparent motivator for developing or justifying pedagogical policies? Perhaps some answers to this puzzle can be found by observing the nature of the relationship between state and higher education in two main arenas of politics and economics.

Writing about higher education policy in Western Europe, Berdahl (1991) notes that during the 1970s, many states “facilitated” the growth of universities and colleges (including polytechnics) to support greater access to higher education. However, during the 1980s European governments began to intervene strongly in their higher education systems, and institutions have found it increasingly difficult to deal with the policy changes imposed upon them (or to shake off the demands of political and social leaders). Now, in the mid-1990s, a new era seems to be in full swing, one in which national governments are perhaps more willing to defer control of higher education policy to the institutions.

The Netherlands offers an interesting case in Western Europe for studying recent changes in the relationship between the government and higher education institutions. The new “remote control” strategy developed in the late 1980s has received a lot of attention outside the Netherlands, primarily due to its successful attempt to change the relationship between the government and higher education by actually increasing institutional autonomy. Particularly noteworthy in this new approach is that institutional quality and differentiation have replaced social equality and equity as policy objectives.

British scholar Guy Neave explored the nature of recent changes in European higher education in terms of “the withdrawal of the state.” Indeed, it could very well be that this withdrawal of the state in many of these nations is one of the main facilitating elements, if not the primary catalyst for the rise of strong relations between industry and higher education—surely, the withdrawal of the state has made relationships with industry increasingly important for the financial health of institutions of higher education. But where Neave asks “what then are the consequences for higher education in Western Europe of the combination of state divestiture, civil society and market forces...,” it may be that the answer already lies before us.

It could very well be that this withdrawal of the state in many of these nations is one of the main facilitating elements for movement toward regional and international approaches to policy decisions in both the economic and educational arenas. Finnish scholars Kivinen and Rinne suggest that “the most probable future source of inducement to radical change lies in international pressure...International student markets, employee markets, job markets and the status markets will eventually and inevitably also come to dominate even the universities of the European periphery, and the national government will be forced to withdraw from the stage.” Rising costs and increased social demand for access to places have compelled governments, in each of the regions studied, to take a fresh look at funding arrangements, international linkages and joint ventures. Many national governments are calling for changes in their higher education policies which will
respond to the development of a global economy and increasing global interdependence. The governments in each of these regions are greatly concerned with the economic relationship between higher education and human resource development. For example, in India, only certification provides the passport to the world of work. With more and more people chasing the limited number of jobs available, there is a constant escalation in the required qualification. Most nation’s governmental relationships with higher education policy have been related in some form to this economic view towards the nature and purpose of higher education, and the nations of North America are included in this category. In short, as has been discussed previously in this essay, economic policy and educational policy have certainly become inextricably linked.

In the U.S., where the federal government works on an unspoken assumption of the self-maintaining existence of universities, can regionalism and international cooperation in higher education ever truly be realized to the extent already evident in Europe, the Caribbean and, to some degree, Asia? There are some significant differences between the U.S. and the regional examples discussed earlier which should be mentioned in this context. To begin with, in most of the countries in each of the regions studied here, professors are overwhelmingly employees of the state. However, as this is not the case in the United States, the relationship between academics and politicians becomes incredibly more complex. On average, professors in the European Union by and large do not appear to feel strongly that “there is far too much governmental interference in important academic policies.” As an interesting aside, it remains to be seen whether the professoriate of these nations will perhaps someday become employees of a regional European Union government, as one of many potential futures for the EC may be void of national civil employee structures. On the other hand, over a third of the academics in the United States surveyed by the Carnegie Foundation felt that the government interferes too much in academic policy, even though in comparison there is far less real governmental interference in higher education here than in Europe.

José Sarukhán Kermez, rector of the National Autonomous University of Mexico, and ACE President Robert H. Atwell both agree that the single word that best describes higher education in both countries is “non-system.” Indeed, Mexican universities are proud of their title of “national autonomous university” and the United States has never considered sponsoring a national university, unlike many nations of Europe. While there is a U.S. Department of Education, its powers are minimal, and its principal significance to American colleges and universities lies in the amounts of, and conditions attached to, granting Federal student financial aid and in its central role in the compilation of statistics and in reporting on the condition of higher education in the United States. Recent efforts of our political leaders to cut whole programs of foreign student and scholar exchanges can only be seen in the context of this essay as an unfortunate step backwards.

On one hand, it might seem that the Republican agenda of “withdrawing” the state may lead to the effects seen in Europe and elsewhere. However, Republicans are notoriously isolationists, in their haste to withdraw governmental influence in our lives they are also withdrawing support for the international exchange programs. The current GOP political agenda calls for reducing support for international education and cultural exchanges by $276 million. Spending on international education and foreign language programs in the Education Department is down, and includes a $2 million cut in funding for Title VI international exchange activities. Funding for international exchanges in the US Information Agency (USIA) budget, which
includes the Fullbright and other academic programs, lost $4.5 million this year. My bias is rather obvious here—the U.S. government should support and expand, not destroy, programs that build regional and international linkages in higher education. The New York Times recently reported a number of initiatives by European national governments to promote interest in their language and culture among students attending United States institutions of higher education. Such a response to this perception is far more “international” in perspective than the resistance to globalization (or even regionalism) which currently dominates the U.S. political agenda, a perspective that one can only hope will wane in due time.

Although central bureaucracy has never, nor will it be ever, a part of our nation’s higher education landscape, the federal government undoubtedly contributes much towards the development of international perspectives in higher education. The role they have played in facilitating international exchange of people and ideas has been, and will continue to be crucial for developing a more global perspective in higher education. Perhaps only through voluntary institutional collaboration will any pervasive reform movements towards internationalizing higher education come to pass in our nation or region. And it might be true that the same sort of economic incentives found elsewhere in the world will be needed in North America to bring about this voluntary collaboration. However, perhaps it can now be said that the United States government can no longer enjoy the peaceful slumber of isolationist and ethnocentric ignorance of this new global interdependence, and must at least make some strides towards preparing for the seemingly inevitable.

THE ACADEMIC PROFESSION

The inheritance of all the main scholarly traditions—Asian, Judaeo-Christian, Islamic—is that knowledge is for sharing trans-nationally, at least among the community of scholars. Very early in history, scholars began to correspond across distances, to write books to pass on their ideas and to journey from their own country to meet fellow scholars elsewhere. According to the recent Carnegie Foundation International Study of the Academic Profession, a majority of the professors throughout the region agreed with the statement that “connections with scholars in other countries are very important,” and that it is “essential to read books and journals published abroad.” A look at the attitudes of academics in the U.S. in comparison with other nations provides enormous insight into what I have alluded to earlier as the differences between “nationalistic” and “regionalist” mindsets. In particular, a comparison of the responses between academics in the U.S. and in the European nations surveyed gives an especially poignant illustration of the differences of perspective between nationalism and regionalism.
Table 3: Responses of Academics in European Nations and the United States to selected statements adapted from the recent Carnegie International Survey (percent agreeing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>The Netherlands</th>
<th>Sweden</th>
<th>United Kingdom</th>
<th>United States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The curriculum at this institution should be more international in focus</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>n/ a</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>n/ a</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have traveled abroad to study or do research for at least one month during the past three years</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have served as a faculty member at an institution in another country for at least one month during the past three years</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In order to keep up with developments in my discipline, a scholar must read books and journals published abroad</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>n/ a</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connections with scholars in other countries are very important to my professional work</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A scholar’s international connections are important in faculty evaluation at this institution</td>
<td>n/ a</td>
<td>n/ a</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>n/ a</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As shown in Table 3, academics in the U.S. are significantly more “nationalistic” in their perspective of higher education and academic life than their European counterparts. I attribute at least part of this to the regionalist mindset that has resulted from the creation of the European Union. One wonders whether these attitudes among professors will someday translate into real support for regional and international sharing of institutional resources in higher education. If so, it would seem that institutions in Europe will enjoy such benefits far in advance of their North American counterparts. In addition to attitudes, there are at least one other main issues concerning the relationship between the academic profession and the regionalization of higher education policy perspectives: scholarly exchange.

Participants at a recent meeting between chief executives of U.S. and Mexican universities concurred that collaboration among faculty members is the heart of international academic cooperation. As indicated in Table 3, U.S. professors don’t get out much—only 9% of those surveyed responded that they had served as a faculty member at an institution in foreign country sometime during the last three years. While many scholars agree that the United States’ higher education system has had enormous impact on systems throughout the world, it might be true that ideas transferred through foreign scholars visiting the U.S. have had more impact than the relatively few U.S. scholars visiting foreign countries.

During the 1993-94 academic year, a total of 59,981 scholars from abroad taught or studied in doctoral-granting universities in the U.S. Of them, almost 80% were in the U.S. doing some form of research, while 12.1% were teaching only, and the remaining 8.1% doing a little of both. Asian professors made up 45.7% of the
total, and Europeans account for 35.6%. China sent 9,506 scholars, 4,649 came from Japan, 3,502 from Germany, and 3,501 from India.

With regard to the present discussion on the potential of regionalism in North America, it is noteworthy to observe that only 4.1% of visiting scholars came from the North American continent. In all, only 9.8% of scholars were from the North and South America combined. In essence, academics in North American higher education institutions appear to be far behind their counterparts in the other major regions of the world in establishing international scholarly connections.

Perhaps one reason for U.S. academics' reluctance to be more attentive to issues and scholarly developments abroad is that 80% of the scholarly journals in almost every academic field are published in the U.S. As Altbach notes, “the major Western knowledge producers currently constitute a kind of OPEC of information, dominating not only the creation of knowledge but also the most of the major channels of distribution.”

An advanced degree from an industrialized nation is still the preferred mechanism for separating the truly talented and worthy from those unwashed masses who hold degrees from indigenous universities in developing countries. A review of the members of Parliaments, heads of state, university professors, and business leaders throughout much of Asia, Latin America and Africa reads like a Who's Who of international graduates of Western prestigious universities. In a sense, Western academic ideals and values continually add to the existing predominate Western academic structure, and thus scholarly activity in the Western world is perceived, particularly by those in the West, as the main legitimate source of academic involvement and progress. How to convince U.S. academics and government leaders to pursue an agenda of regionalizing higher education policy is indeed a challenging dilemma, but one which, I believe will need to be addressed in the not-so-distant future.

This discussion is particularly timely given the relatively aging academic profession in many nations. According to Beth Davenport, director of the Soros Foundation's Higher Education Support Scheme, “Many professors [in Hungarian institutions] are retiring, and the schools would like to take advantage of the opportunity to internationalize...Many academic departments at the state universities are looking for Western academics to fill critical positions.” Within Europe, faculty exchange is quite substantial. For example, a total of 3,500 faculty members from Hungarian universities have participated in exchanges and joint projects with some 2,500 academics from western Europe under the TEMPUS program. In general, attitudes of academics often reflect the predominant social and political perspectives of their nation, but their actions are even more significant than their attitudes. If only 9% of all 3,000 U.S. academics surveyed by the Carnegie Foundation have served as a faculty member in another country, and only 35% have traveled abroad to study or conduct research, then their actions speak volumes about the challenges of internationalizing policies and perspectives of higher education in the United States.
STUDENT MOBILITY

The number of students attending universities outside their home countries over the last thirty years has increased more than tenfold worldwide over the last thirty years. While this is not groundbreaking news to many, the directions of foreign student flows provide insight to what may be a significant factor in the reluctance of U.S. academics and policymakers to embrace the regionalist perspectives I have mentioned in this essay. According to UNESCO, the U.S. enrolls about one third of the 1.22 million foreign students in higher education in the 50 leading countries, more than any other nation. The European Union collectively sent over 49,370 students to the U.S. in 1992-93, while students from Asia account for almost 59% of the total 449,750 foreign students in the U.S. The Caribbean region sent over 9,170 students to the U.S. in that academic year. Unfortunately, the flow in the other direction has historically never been of the same magnitude, perhaps showing a lack of global perspective in the United States—a topic which will be addressed later in this essay.

It is also noteworthy that the primary source of funds for foreign students in the U.S. is either from personal or family resources, with only 2.5% receiving funds from U.S. private sponsors, and only 1.3% receiving support from the U.S. government. According to the data, foreign students study in the U.S. predominantly at public 4-year institutions, all of which charge fairly significant out-of-state tuition fees. Thus, it seems that only those who can afford to study in the U.S. are welcome here. However, the same sort of barriers do not restrict students from one relatively poor nation, say Hungary, from studying in a neighboring country of greater wealth. More than 4,000 Hungarian students have studied abroad under TEMPUS since 1990. Currently some 600 of them study abroad each year under several other programs, including the Soros Foundation’s student exchange program and those sponsored by international-studies centers at individual universities.

It is important at this point to mention the 22,655 Canadians and 8,021 Mexicans who studied in the U.S. in the 1993-94 academic year. By looking at these numbers in relation to total foreign student enrollments in U.S. institutions, the paltry 5.2% that accounts for all foreign students of North American origin is striking. Although figures are not readily available, it can be somewhat easily assumed that the European exchange of students among the nations of the EC is considerably more substantial than the North American exchange.

Changes in the overall landscape of student foreign exchange are also potential indicators of the need for re-evaluating our nation’s perspectives toward the provision of higher education. While foreign students are still coming to the U.S. in increasing numbers, the number of host countries is also growing. Where the majority of foreign study has historically taken place in U.S. institutions, other nations are becoming leaders in this field. France, a nation no bigger than the state of Iowa, enrolls about 137,000 foreign students. Germany, a nation geographically smaller than the state of Oregon has become the 4th largest “host nation” for foreign study. In sum, the high number of foreign students coming to the U.S., most significantly from Asia and Europe, but not significantly from North America, adds a noteworthy dimension to the discussion of regionalism laid out in this essay. Perhaps a relative increase in the perceived quality of higher education in countries outside the U.S. will be necessary to reverse this predominantly one-way flow of foreign students. Of course, this by
inference means that the U.S. would experience a relative decline in perceived educational quality, an event which some might suggest is currently in the making.
When regionalism is the mindset for the majority of countries in a particular area, what happens to those nations who, for whatever reasons, do not buy into such ideals and prefer to ‘go it alone’? An education system by itself cannot achieve a more equitable distribution of wealth, although many nation’s educational policies seem to be built around the opposite premise. Other factors involved in such an egalitarian goal include the political and economic institutions of a nation, the role of multinational capital, and the degree of monopoly concentration of capital and employment.\(^6\) Thus, educational trends and policies have become linked with economic trends and policies, which themselves have become regional in varying degrees and forms throughout the world. In a world capitalist system controlled by the dominant actors, nations must strive to achieve economic parity with their peers. Regionalism, particularly in the form of the European Union, has raised the level of peer from the national level to a much more powerful multi-national level. It is my conclusion that as these economic trends and policies become more regional in scope and direction, so must educational policy follow.

I chose to look at two regions—the Caribbean and the emerging European Union—as examples of regionalism in its various forms. Within this context, I have explored some main differences and similarities between these regions and North America, and come to the conclusion that the policies and goals of our nation’s institutions of higher education must begin to address the concept of regionalism as a very real possibility in our future. The regions presented in this paper provide distinct and different approaches towards higher education policies, but each with a growing trend towards regionalism. The recent NAFTA economic treaty gives hope that indeed the U.S. is developing a regional mindset of its own. However, in terms of higher education policy development, we are still largely under the precarious intoxication which results from having the largest and recognizably most successful selection of higher education institutions worldwide.

In a recent article, Elaine El-Khawas of the American Council on Education describes some of the major indicators of trends which reflect that institutions of higher education in the U.S. may already be moving towards a more international focus.\(^7\) Three of these indicators are in student and faculty mobility across borders, internationalizing the curriculum, and collaborative programs between institutions in different nations. Each of these indicators of internationalizing higher education are experiencing trends of significant growth, for many reasons. To begin with, American business firms are increasingly becoming multi-national corporations, and thus are becoming aware that their perspective must become more global. Colleges and universities thus face continually growing expectations that their graduates will enter the workforce with the necessary background to build and expand a global perspective. In addition, a growing diversity among today’s student population contributes significantly to the pressures on higher education institutions to internationalize the scope and content of their curriculum. In short, the trends throughout North American higher education are in the direction of cutting down the boundaries between nations. Without the existence and growing acceptance of NAFTA, these trends would almost certainly be less noticable.
Daniel Levy recently outlined a number of new initiatives, and opportunities for many other initiatives, between colleges and universities in the United States and Mexico. According to Levy, current Mexican initiatives for internationalization in higher education are not unsurprisingly influenced with an American flavor. That is, collaborative programs, new curriculum focus areas and developments, and particularly student and faculty mobility are mainly between Mexico and the United States, much more so than with any other nation. However, as Levy points out, the structure of a Mexican higher education institution often differs in many respects from the expectations of American-oriented collaborative programs, particularly in the case of separate faculties versus departments coordinated by a single, responsible institutional administration. Educators on both sides of the border must come together to develop a common understanding of these expectations, in order for regionalism or internationalism to be successful. According to Levy, El-Khawas, and others, this necessary communication across borders is growing in scope and depth, and I would add to their observation that NAFTA may be one of the most significant contributors to this growth, and perhaps even a necessary contributor, as discussed earlier.

Burton Clark’s observation of 1978 still rings true—“in thinking about postsecondary education, Americans tend to remain isolated and insular.” However, I am optimistic that perhaps someday we will see the creation of a University of North America, possibly with campuses in British Columbia, Quebec, the Atlantic and Pacific Coasts of the U.S., the Gulf of Mexico, and perhaps even the southern-most border of Mexico. I envision a multi-campus system of higher education, perhaps governed much like the University of California system, but which would be fully funded and staffed jointly by educators from Canada, Mexico and the United States, and the student populations would naturally reflect this regional mindset. Rapid advances in technology and telecommunications are increasing the possibilities for such regional sharing of resources and educational information. The University of Central Europe, founded by Soros Foundation, provides an excellent example of the kind of academic cooperation needed for this sort of bi-lateral and multi-lateral agreements.

Such an idea for North America is by no means fantastical, as the foundations for such institutions are possibly already being developed. Take for example a recent meeting between U.S. college presidents and Mexican rectors. Leaders of Mexican and U.S. institutions of higher education met at New York University in October, 1994, a meeting organized by the American Council on Education and its Mexican counterpart, the National Association of Universities and Institutes of Higher Education. This was one of a series of bilateral seminars bringing together chief executives of U.S. institutions and those from other countries to allow them to become familiar with each others’ systems and promote closer ties. Among the most interesting results of this meeting, the group agreed that the best way to accelerate the pace of cooperation among the U.S., Mexico and Canada would be to develop a faculty and student mobility program such as ERASMUS. I agree that our nation and higher education institutions should focus a proactive agenda for facilitating greater mobility among students and professors throughout North America, and am greatly encouraged by initiatives such as the newly implemented North American Mobility in Higher Education program, sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education’s Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE), the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade and Human Resources Development of Canada, and the University Development branch of Mexico’s Ministry of Education.
However, one important and possibly volatile aspect to regional economic and education cooperation in North America is worth mention—if there is regional cooperation, via NAFTA in the economic realm or via some academic or educational consortia, it is likely to develop an “Americanized” flavor, a matter which both Canadians and Mexicans have every right to be concerned about. As Crossley and Louisy note, if this new regionalism is to be seen as furthering the individual and collective interests of sovereign states, each would have to be willing to forego some national interests for the common good. Unfortunately, given the present, rather isolationist political agenda in our nation, the United States may not yet be ready to successfully pursue a policy movement in the direction of regionalism.

Our nation must move our paradigm for defining higher education’s purpose in the direction that NAFTA has begun to move us. Other regions of the globe are far more advanced than we in terms of regional cooperation on many of the issues discussed in this essay. As Charles H. Karelis, the Director of FIPSE states, “The Europeans have recognized the importance of studying and working among your trading partners, and the U.S. is now recognizing the same thing.” Indeed, perhaps it can be said that regionalism appears to be working, in the context of the higher education examples discussed in this paper. With the globalization of capital and knowledge upon us, we as a nation must strive to encourage more of an international flavor in our national higher education policy. The young need to be educated to realize how much of their lives will be determined by transnational forces. Further, in today’s world of global communications and fluidity of people, cultures and ideas, higher education institutions worldwide clearly pursue similar goals and are faced with similar problems. In this era of looking at our world as a much smaller place than ever before, international cooperation has become commonplace, most significantly in the arenas of intervention in armed conflict or disaster, and through economic and trade negotiations, multinational corporations and the globalization of capital markets. It is this latter arena in which I feel that, given the strong ties between economic and educational policies in many nations, our future will include a truly trans-national sharing of knowledge.

Regionalism is the present and near future trend for economic policy throughout the world, evidenced by regional arrangements such as the European Community, NAFTA and ASEAN. I believe that trends towards economic regionalism will surely lead to a more regionalist view towards educational policy, and the U.S. is destined to walk this path, eventually. Writing about future educational trends in Europe and beyond, British authors Michael Gell and Peter Cochrane predict that in the coming decades, “the education sector will no longer be constrained by distance, time or country, and will evolve to be a truly international activity.” Just as tiny biological cells combine to make larger units, which in turn come together to form even larger, more complex and powerful units, so do I predict will be the nature of effective strategies for the globalization of higher education in the United States and North America. Regional economic interdependence will certainly influence, if not directly cause, regional interdependence and collaboration in higher education.
NOTES


5 Kerr, Clark “The Internationalization of Learning and the Nationalization of the Purposes of Higher Education” p. 5


10 Crossley and Louisy, p. 110

11 Crossley and Louisy, p. 110

12 Crossley and Louisy, p. 117


15 Crossley and Louisy, p. 117

16 E. Miller Men at Risk (Kingston, Jamaica Publishing House 1991) p. 283

17 Crossley and Louisy, p. 122


21 CRE Info (The Association of European Universities newsletter) Number 6, October, 1994 p. 3

22 Hans De Witt, University of Amsterdam “Education and Globalization in Europe: An Overview of its Development” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)


28 Robert Berdahl “Higher Education and Governmental Relations in Western Europe” in Educational Record Vol. 72, (Fall, 1991) p. 54

29 Robert Berdahl “Higher Education and Governmental Relations in Western Europe” in Educational Record Vol. 72, (Fall, 1991) p. 54

30 Andrea Serban, SUNY Albany “Internationalization of Higher Education: An Eastern European Perspective” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)

31 Andrea Serban, SUNY Albany “Internationalization of Higher Education: An Eastern European Perspective” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)

32 Botho von Kopp, German Institute for International Educational Research “Internationalization of the University in a Context of New Challenges” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)

33 Hans De Witt, University of Amsterdam “Education and Globalization in Europe: An Overview of its Development” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)

34 Madeleine F. Green, Vice President for International Initiatives at ACE The Compass, p. 8

35 Hans De Witt, University of Amsterdam “Education and Globalization in Europe: An Overview of its Development” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)

36 Hans De Witt, University of Amsterdam “Education and Globalization in Europe: An Overview of its Development” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)
37 Philip G. Altbach “Patterns in Higher Education Development: Towards the Year 2000” in Altbach, Philip G. and Zaghou Morsy (eds.) Higher Education in International Perspective UNESCO/Advent Books, New York 1992 p. 33


40 Crossley and Louisy, p. 113


43 Andrea Serban, SUNY Albany “Internationalization of Higher Education: An Eastern European Perspective” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)

44 Andrea Serban, SUNY Albany “Internationalization of Higher Education: An Eastern European Perspective” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)

45 Robert Berdahl “Higher Education and Governmental Relations in Western Europe” in Educational Record Vol. 72, (Fall, 1991) p. 50


50 Crossley and Louisy, p. 110


52 Edward Shills “Governments and Universities” p. 193


58 “Fearful of losing political and cultural stature, France’s government is giving money to six major American universities in the hope of creating a new generation of Francophiles. The French are responding to declining interest in their language and culture in the U.S. and to growing tension between France and the U.S. that exploded into the open last year during the waning days of world trade talks. Other countries, particularly Japan and Germany, have been giving money to American colleges and universities to further interest in their language and culture. Germany, for example, created centers for German studies at Harvard University, UC Berkeley, and Georgetown University. The French program creates six Centers of Excellence in French Studies, which will emphasize interdisciplinary courses in French culture, politics and science.” —— New York Times, 2/23/94


61 The Compass, p. 8

62 Botho von Kopp, German Institute for International Educational Research “Internationalization of the University in a Context of New Challenges” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)


64 Philip G. Altbach “Patterns in Higher Education Development: Towards the Year 2000” in Altbach, Philip G. and Zaghoul Morsy (eds.) Higher Education in International Perspective UNESCO/ Advent Books, New York 1992 p. 31


69 Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac, September, 1994 p. 18
70 Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac, September, 1994 p. 18


80 Andrea Serban, SUNY Albany “Internationalization of Higher Education: An Eastern European Perspective” (paper presented at the CIES Conference in Boston, April 1, 1995)

81 The Compass, p. 1

82 The Compass, p. 8

83 Crossley and Louisy, p. 113


85 Taylor, p. 439

Several regional networks are instrumental in engaging higher education and research institutions e.g., the Baltic University Programme (BUP) (Scoullos et al. 2016). An Asia-Pacific wide network. An example of a tertiary ESD network is ‘ProSPER.Net’, a university network committed to integrate SD into post-graduate courses and curricula. Learning for and about sustainability in higher education — a regional perspective based on experiences from the Baltic and the Mediterranean International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education Vol. 18 No. 6, 2017. UNESCO (A. Leicht, J. Heiss and W. J. Byun eds) (2018). Issues and trends in Education for Sustainable Development. UNESCO Publishing, Paris. UNESCO (2014). The regional higher education area is the space in which students, faculty members and HEIs are the key players promoting similar standards of higher education activities. In other words, in a region with a harmonised system of higher education there will be continuous interactions and mobility for students, faculty members and talents. The most important factor that contributes to the success of the process of harmonisation in higher education is the participation and consensus building at the level of national agencies, the public and also other stakeholders. The idea of regionalism in higher education in Asia or Southeast Asia is a very exciting idea, indeed. Southeast Asia has been integrating rapidly mainly through trade and investment. Economics, Education, Regionalism. The Shape of Global Higher Education: Understanding the ASEAN Region (Volume 3). ‘The shape of global higher education’ considers the policy environment in a total of 43 countries and the extent to which national systems support international collaboration in higher education. This third volume focuses on ASEAN more. ‘The shape of global higher education’ considers the policy environment in a total of 43 countries and the extent to which national systems support international collaboration in higher education. This third volume focuses on ASEAN member states. Internationalization of higher education in theory is “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education.” Internationalization of higher education in practice is “the process of commercializing research and postsecondary education, and international competition for the recruitment of foreign students from wealthy and privileged countries in order to generate revenue, secure national profile, and build