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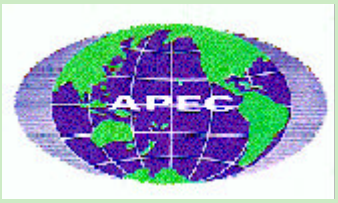
International Higher Education: Models, Conditions and Issues

Allan B. Bernardo



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Abstract

The study was conducted to answer the following questions: (a) What are the various modes and forms of international education in a globalized higher education environment? (b) How ready are Philippine higher education institutions for international education? (c) What is the implication of having the various modes of international education in the Philippines?

Two categories of activities of international higher education were found: (a) activities stemming from the traditional spirit of **internationalism** (ethos of international cooperationism & appreciation of an international quality) and (b) variations of **open market transnational education** that were born out of the agenda of globalization. Exemplars of these were described. It was also noted that even those activities born out of internationalism seem to have been transformed recently in ways that converge with the agenda of globalization.

The prospects of internationalizing higher education in the Philippines were contextualized within the present education system that is experiencing problems related to efficiency, quality, equity in access, and other external factors. Given this context, it was suggested that participation in international education programs might be limited to students from high-income families, and to institutions with strong financial resources that can be channeled to development programs that will enable them to meet the requirements of these international activities. There is a strong likelihood that international programs might lead to the intensification of the existing weaknesses in Philippine higher education.

All things considered, it seems that Philippine higher education could best benefit from international education activities in terms of improving the quality of programs and resources. Thus, it is suggested that quality improvement be a primary consideration in engaging international higher education. In this regard, more specific issues have to be addressed related to the focus of quality improvement, the status of local institutions in international partnerships, and the strengthening of local networks.

Finally, the prospects for improving the consequences of internationalizing Philippine higher education amidst the globalizing environment will depend on the prospects for (a) strengthening the quality and the efficiency of Philippine higher education, (b) improving access to quality higher education, and (c) creating the external environment that will be conducive to and supportive of international education activities.

Executive Summary

Part 1. The principal aim of the study is to review current perspectives and information relevant to the following research questions:

1.1 What are the various modes and forms of international education in a globalized higher education environment?
1.2 How ready are Philippine higher education institutions for international education?
1.3 What is the implication of having the various modes of international education in the Philippines? In particular, what is the implication of the entry of foreign schools in the country in terms of the efficiency and equity issues related to the delivery of higher education services?

Part 2. The problem of defining international higher education

2.1 Most universities that exist today are creations of nation states; their characters and functions are largely shaped by the agenda of nation states.
2.2 Different countries engage the concept of internationalization differently and for different purposes. Thus, the concept of internationalization might be best approached with reference to specific approaches and constructions of internationalization in domains of policy, process, types of activities, among others.
2.3 We can discern two strong agenda in various internationalization activities: (a) the traditional internationalization, which is consistent with the spirit of cooperation among nation states of the old world order, and (b) globalization, which involves the discourses of integration of economies, competition, mass culture, distributed knowledge production systems, and high technology.

Part 3. Models of international higher education

3.1 One category of models can be described as those stemming from the traditional spirit of ***internationalism*** or the ethos of international cooperationism and the appreciation of an international quality. Another category can be characterized as those variations of ***open market transnational education*** that were born out of the agenda of globalization.
3.2 Specific activities that could be classified as being originally conceived in the spirit of internationalism include: (a) international student mobility, (b) faculty exchange and development, (c) research collaboration, (d) foreign language study, (e) building international perspectives, and (f) international networks.
3.3 Current practice in these activities featuring internationalism have been transformed in ways that make them more attuned to the realities and requirements of globalization.

3.4 Exemplars of open market transnational education include: (a) distance education, (b) locally supported distance education, (c) twinning programs, (d) articulation programs, (e) branch campuses, (f) franchising agreements, and (g) international quality assurance systems.

Part 4. An overview of Philippine higher education

4.1 Several observations have been made suggesting that Philippine higher education suffers from several forms of internal and external ineffieciencies. Some of the issues related to efficiency include: (a) the lack of a rational system for the establishment of public higher education institutions, (b) poor efficiencies in size, (c) poor student flows, (d) the lack of articulation between performance in fiscal planning, and (e) the lack of a rational system that ensures that program offerings address national development requirements.

4.2 Many indicators of quality higher education point to current weaknesses in the inputs, processes, and outputs of Philippine higher education. Some of these indicators relate to: (a) faculty credentials, (b) instructional/library facilities, (c) the nature of the curriculum, (d) poor average performance on licensure examinations, and (e) low proportion of institutions with accreditation.

4.3 Access to quality higher education is brought about by three related factors: (a) geographic distribution of institutions, (b) the strict admission requirements, and (c) the high cost of tertiary education.

4.4 There are other factors in the external environment of Philippine higher education that strongly influence the efficiency, quality, and equity in access. These factors are: (a) the absence of a credit market for higher education, (b) the availability of public information on options and returns of the different higher education institutions, and (c) weak external governance by the CHED.

Part 5. Prospects, issues, and consequences of internationalizing Philippine higher education

5.1 International student and staff mobility from the Philippine to other countries will be limited by the availability of financial resources for this purpose. The option shall be available for students from high-income families, and for institutions with large financial endowments that can be used for this purpose.

5.2 The stronger Philippine institutions can position themselves as a destinations for student and staff mobility if they can develop well-defined niches in the higher education market based on areas of strength around which they can develop internationally or regionally competitive programs.

5.3 The ability of institutions to develop effective truly international programs will be limited by the availability of appropriately trained faculty members, adequate libraries and research facilities, among others. Thus, we can

expect that it would be the strong institutions that can develop and maintain such programs.

5.4 Similarly, it is very likely that the elite institutions would be in the best position to participate in international research collaborations. The larger majority of institutions do not have the resources to be attractive partners for collaboration. The CHED can rationalize its research development program so that there can be a more effective means of developing the research infrastructure and capabilities in Philippine universities, so as to enable more international research collaborations.

5.5 The elite institutions will again be in the best position to participate and to benefit from international networks, as such networks typically have certain quality and efficiency requirements that participating institutions should meet.

5.6 The local market for foreign distance education programs is likely to be small, as the cost of such programs make this option available only to a very small segment of the higher education market.

5.7 Although the local market for twinning and articulation programs may be small because of the high costs of such programs, they may be quite attractive because of the opportunity to obtain international credentials. In this regard, the elite institutions might experience some competition, as the twinning and articulation programs target the traditional clientele of these elite institutions. The elite institutions might need to explore avenues for allowing their students to obtain international credentials to be more competitive in this area.

5.8 Programs of open-market transnational education might not affect the low-end and middle-level institutions as the latter institutions cater to students from low- and middle-income families that generally cannot afford these transnational education programs. Thus, there will be no changes in the options of their traditional market.

5.9 Participation in international quality assurance systems is likely to be limited to the elite institutions, as well, as the resources that are required for this purpose are largely unavailable for most low-end and middle-level institutions.

5.10 Generally, participation in international education programs might be limited to students from high-income families, and to institutions with strong financial resources that can be channeled to development programs that will enable them to meet the requirements of these international activities.

5.11 There is a strong likelihood that international programs might lead to the intensification of the existing weaknesses in Philippine higher education (i.e., no improvement in quality of most institutions, lower external efficiency as institutions address global requirements, and more inequitable access to quality education).

5.12 However, there is still the possibility that middle-level institutions may benefit from some of the activities of international education (e.g., the

benchmarking for international standards of quality), particularly if these initiatives are supported by the appropriate government agencies.

5.13 All things considered, it seems that Philippine higher education could best benefit from international education activities in terms of improving the quality of programs and resources. Thus, it is suggested that quality improvement be a primary consideration in engaging international higher education. In this regard more specific issues have to be addressed related to the focus of quality improvement, the status of local institutions in international partnerships, and the strengthening of local networks.

5.14 The prospects for improving the consequences of internationalizing Philippine higher education amidst the globalizing environment will depend on the prospects for (a) strengthening the quality and the efficiency of Philippine higher education, (b) improving access to quality higher education, and (c) creating the external environment that will be conducive to and supportive of international education activities.

International Higher Education: Models, Conditions and Issues

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Part 1

Introduction

The internationalization of higher education institutions is a natural and inevitable consequence of the continued globalization of economies. For one, higher education institutions are now being called to produce professionals for an internationalized economy. Moreover, the opening of national boundaries to foreign institutions that seek to offer higher educational services is a scenario that is very likely to become a Philippine reality in the medium-term. There is a need to understand the possible forms of these developments and to assess how the Philippine higher education system will respond to or be affected by these developments. Understanding these phenomena should provide important insights and guides for policy formulation on these issues, as well as for local higher education institutions as they seek to redefine their goals and operations in an increasingly global educational environment.

Objectives of the Study

The principal aim of the study is to review current perspectives and information relevant to the following research questions:

(1) What are the various modes and forms of international education in a globalized higher education environment?
(2) How ready are Philippine higher education institutions for international education?
(3) What is the implication of having the various modes of international education in the Philippines? In particular, what is the implication of the entry of foreign schools in the country in terms of the efficiency and equity issues related to the delivery of higher education services?

The first question simply seeks to determine the range of models of higher education that are available and to understand the features of each of these models. The range of models will reflect as much of the models being implemented in many countries, including those that are not yet being implemented in the Philippines. In understanding the various models, particular attention will be given to the experience of member economies of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC).

The second question seeks to assess the readiness of Philippine colleges and universities, and the Philippine higher educational system as a whole, in terms of the various requirements of international education. Some of the factors that will be considered in answering this question are the curriculum, student assessment and evaluation procedures, information management systems, teacher preparation and credentials, monitoring, accountability, and quality assurance systems, physical

resources, library and other support services, the higher education market, financing of higher education institutions, the organization of the higher education system, governance, among others. These various factors could be related to three general concerns: quality issues, equity and access issues, and efficiency issues.

The third question seeks to explore the issues related to the impact of specific models of international higher education on the Philippine higher educational system. Particular focus will be given to the possible consequences of the entry of foreign institutions on (a) access and equity issues, and (b) the fiscal efficiency of higher educational institutions. Thus the discussion will focus on, among other things, how the entry of foreign institutions may or may not impact on how local institutions manage their operations in ways that might alter their fiscal efficiency and the extent to which institutions address the problems of unequal access to quality higher education in the country.

Organization of the Report

The report will have four main substantive parts, in addition to this Introduction section, which is Part 1.

Part 2 will be a review and discussion of the broad issues attendant to understanding international higher education and its consequences. This part will seek to contextualize the study of international higher education within contemporary discourses related to globalization and the massification of higher education.

Part 3 will include a discussion of the various models (i.e., approaches to and constructions of) international higher education. The various models that will be considered will be discussed in relation to the broad issues addressed in Part 2. Particular attention will be given to exemplars of the various models as found in member economies of the APEC.

Part 4 will provide a brief overview of the conditions of Philippine higher education. Particular focus will be given to features of the higher educational system that relate to issues of quality, access, equity, and efficiency.

Part 5 will be a discussion of how the various models of international higher education (discussed in Part 3) might impact on higher educational institutions in the Philippines, and the higher educational system as a whole. Again, particular focus will be given to the possible consequences of internationalization on the issues of efficiency, and equity in access.

The issues shall be summarized with the view of surfacing possibly policy options, recommendations, as well as open questions for further study and discussion.

Part 2
International Higher Education: The Problem of Definition

For some educational scholars, higher education has always been an international phenomenon. Indeed, many of the well-established universities that operate today have existed before "nation-states" were actually established (Briggs & Burn, 1985). The notion of *studia generales* of medieval Europe and the wandering scholars shuttling from the universities in Bologna, Paris, and Oxford all suggest that universities of old transcended national barriers. Academics in higher education institutions have always referred to international standards of knowledge generation, validation, and dissemination, so much so that staff members of higher education institutions are more likely to cooperate with institutions from other countries. However, other education scholars have questioned this notion that higher education institutions are inherently international. Scott (1998) considers this notion as being largely mythical because the higher education institutions of today cannot actually directly trace their institutional characters to the medieval universities of Europe. Teichler (1998) and Scott (1998) argue that most universities that exist today are actually creations of nation states and that their character and functions of these institutions have been largely shaped by the implicit or explicit agenda of the nation states.

If we assume that most higher education institutions today are creatures of the nation state, the question of international education becomes all the more salient as it poses an alternative to the inherent character of most higher education institutions. Universities and higher education systems are now being called on to *internationalize*. But how should we understand this concept of *internationalizing* higher education? Is internationalizing higher education different from globalizing higher education?

Scott (1999) provides an effective definition of internationalization of higher education by way of contrasting this concept with the globalization of higher education. He states:

> "*Internationalisation* reflects a world-order dominated by nation states. As a result it has been deeply influenced by the retreat from Empire, and the persistence of neo-colonialism, and by the geo-politics of Great Power rivalry (notably the Cold War). In the context of internationalisation the inequalities between rich North and poor South remain prominent - whether the intention is on strategic relationships. And higher education is not an exception. The recruitment of international students, staff exchanges and partnerships between universities in different countries are all conditioned to a significant extent by this geo-political context."
>
> "*Globalisation* is a very different phenomenon. It reflects not only the process of global competitiveness - between, for example, the great 'market' blocs of the United States, the European Union and the Pacific Rim nations. It also involves intensified collaboration as a global division of labour between low-cost mass manufacture and services provision

> (largely, but not exclusively, centred in the poorer South) and high-value technology and innovation (located mainly in the rich North, but with intriguing deviations). The result, therefore, is not a stable world-order of Great Powers and their allies and client states, however dangerously that stability was achieved. Instead globalisation implies a radical re-ordering of this world-order as new regional blocs emerge as old enemies become new allies (and *vice versa*); and as national boundaries are rendered obsolete by the transgressive tendencies of high technology and mass culture. " (p. 2)

Scott (1999) goes on to clarify that globalization cannot be simply construed as a higher form of internationalization. He argues that whereas internationalization presupposes the existence of established nation states, globalization is "agnostic about, or positively hostile to nation states" (p. 3). Moreover, internationalization is mostly expressed through "the 'high' worlds of diplomacy and culture," whereas, globalization is expressed "in the 'low' worlds of mass consumerism and global capitalism. Most important, Scott argues that internationalization tends to reproduce and even legitimize hierarchy and hegemony, but globalization can address the inequalities between countries of the North and the South, and within different sectors in one nation state.

Within this framework contrasting internationalization with globalization, others have attempted to recast the definition of internationalization within globalization. The resulting definitions are quite broad and generic in nature. Callan (1998) suggests that the current definitions for internationalization will be forever elusive as different countries and higher educational systems might actually engage the concept of internationalization in different ways and for different purposes. Instead, he suggests that we approach the discussion of internationalization with reference to specific "approaches to and constructions of internationalization in the domains of policy, process, educational value and social/occupational change." In a similar vein, Knight (1997) also proposed four approaches to understanding internationalization: based on (a) processes, (b) a typology of activities, (c) the development of competencies, and (d) fostering an international ethos.

These discussions underscore the importance of defining and understanding internationalization in its many different forms and functions. As expected certain constructions of or approaches to internationalization might be more consistent with "internationalization" and less with "globalization" as distinguished by Scott (1999), or vice versa. That is certain practices currently referred to as representing international education might be more aligned with the spirit and agenda of neo-colonial and traditional geo-political dynamics typical of the old world-order. Still other practices might be more attuned to the emerging agenda of global competitiveness, mass culture, and high technology.

In this paper, we will consider the range of approaches to and constructions of international higher education. Thus, instead of committing to one definition of international higher education, the paper will take a catholic approach to understanding

the phenomena. However, the discussions of the various models of international higher education will take into consideration the degree to which these models address the contrasting agendas of internationalization and globalization according to Scott. As the discussions in the next part will show, the agenda of globalizations seems to be more dominant in today's discourse compared to the agenda of internationalization.

Part 3
Models of International Higher Education

Numerous data sources were reviewed to get a sense of the range of approaches to and constructions of international higher education that are currently in place in various parts of the world. Hard documents include reviews, evaluation studies, case studies, critical studies, and theoretical analyses on various models of higher education, which are published in journals, periodicals, edited volumes and books on higher education. Much information was also derived from the Internet. Somewhat not surprisingly, the most current descriptions and discussions on cases, models, and policies relevant to various forms of international higher education are more easily accessible in the Internet.

The various models of international higher education will be grouped into two clusters. The first emphasizes ***internationalism***, and second emphasizes ***open market transnational education***. The difference between the two clusters can be construed as being somewhat analogous in character to the distinctions drawn by Scott (1999) between internationalization and globalization. That is, the models classified within the cluster of internationalism seem to have been conceived and implemented within similar parameters as Scott's definition of internationalization. On the other hand, the models classified within the cluster of open market transnational education seem to have been conceived and implemented within similar parameters as Scott's definition of globalization. These two clusters and specific models that fall under each of these clusters are described and discussed in the following sections.

The different models are classified in one of the two clusters based on an analysis of the original and/or apparent dominant construction of international education that can be discerned for each model. However, as the discussions will indicate, the specific goals, purposes, and features of each model of international education have been undergoing significant transformations. Thus, although it is quite useful to make conceptual distinctions between the two clusters, the clustering should not be viewed as being fixed and rigid. The clustering is a device that is used to highlight certain similarities and differences among programs or activities of higher education and the transformations characteristic of these activities. The clustering also allows for a more integrated discussion of the issues related to the constructions of and approaches to international education.

Internationalism in Higher Education

One clearly identifiable cluster of approaches to and constructions of higher education is premised on the value of internationalism in higher education. For purposes of the current discussion, internationalism is referred to as the principle international

cooperation for the common good and the appreciation of international character or quality in education. Internationalism as a principle or value can be construed as being in opposition to parochialism, and to some extent, nationalism. As applied to discourse on higher education, internationalism refers to approaches to higher education that seek to enhance the international character or quality in students, programs, and institutions. This type of discourse is warmly embraced in higher education circles as colleges and universities often endeavor to ensure that knowledge generated and disseminated in these institutions are relevant and valid not only locally, but also in the global level.

Internationalism is a very good exemplar of internationalization as characterized by Scott (1999) as it presupposes the stability of nation states and argues for some attempt to cooperate among these bounded elements without transgressing the same. The efforts at internationalizing are construed in terms of related educational and development goals. The educational goals are related to assumptions of universal knowledge and the need for collaborative international efforts and perspectives. The development goals are related to the mission of developed countries to provide assistance and support to less developed countries in their efforts at improving the capabilities in their higher education institutions. That is, the programs have the objective of allowing weaker higher education institutions and systems to develop their capabilities and resources through cooperative and/or development assistance programs. In doing so, the less developed institutions and educational systems are enabled to more effectively participate in the global pursuit of knowledge. As the discussion on the specific models of internationalism will also show that these activities and programs often tend to be aligned with agenda of neo-colonialism and the traditional geo-political alignments of the old world-order, which are closely tied to traditional discourse of internationalism, international cooperation and development.

International Student Mobility. One of the oldest models of international education is the model of international student mobility, and it is also the form of international education that has grown the most in recent years. UNESCO statistics indicate that in 1980 about 920,000 persons were pursuing higher education studies outside their country of origin. This number grew to 1.2 million in 1990 and to 1.5 million in 1995 (Sadlak, 1998; UNESCO, 1995), indicating an increase of about 63% in actual number in 15 years. This development is generally viewed as being very positive as the knowledge is assumed to be universal and the pursuit and advancement of knowledge is likewise assumed to be strengthened by collective efforts by individuals from different national and cultural backgrounds (UNESCO, 1995). In this respect, international student mobility is a very effective activity or means for allowing this collective pursuit of knowledge. It is not surprising that some countries have adopted a policy for increasing enrolment of international students. In April 2000, the president of the United States of America issued a memorandum on the country's international education policy that explicitly calls for encouraging students from other countries to study in the U.S.A. and promoting foreign studies by American students (US State Department, 2000). Countries like Australia, Germany, Japan, and the United Kingdom articulated similar policies much earlier. In these countries, the population of foreign students increased around 10% from 1985 to 1995. In China, as a result of new policy

statement of the former Ministry of Education in 1980 ("The Regulation about International Students Studying in China;" Wei & Pan, 1997) the number of foreign students grew 27% in 10 years (Sadlak, 1998).

However, there are recent patterns in the flow of student mobility that seem to indicate that international student mobility serves agenda other than the enhancement of international cooperative efforts to advance knowledge. The pattern of concern relates to the balance of student flow. According to Sadlak (1998), more than 75% of all foreign study takes place in just ten countries: the USA (which receives more than 30% of all foreign students), France, Germany, the United Kingdom, Russia, Japan, Australia, Canada, Belgium, Switzerland, Austria, and Italy. All are countries of the rich North, and all but one of these countries are members of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), a network of developed economies. In contrast, only one sub-Saharan African country is among the top 50 host countries. Similarly, only one sub-Saharan African country is among the top 50 countries of origin of foreign students. These data alone indicate how certain countries maybe over-represented in these international student mobility programs, while others are grossly underrepresented.

The most likely reason for this trend relates to the different financial capabilities of countries to send their students to study abroad. It seems therefore, that international student mobility has become largely dependent on the countries' relative economic strengths. This assertion is supported by data indicating that the number students from developed countries who are studying abroad is increasing faster than the corresponding number from developing countries (UNESCO, 1995). More important, about 97% of students from developed countries who study abroad do so in another developed country. More and more, international student mobility is flowing from North to North (among developed and newly-industrializing countries (Scott, 1998; UNESCO, 1995). South to North mobility is happening less (accounting for about 6% of total, Ordoñez, 1997); South to South mobility is even less (1%, Ordoñez, 1997).

Thus, it seems that the more noble scholarly goals of student mobility are being undermined by market and other economic demands. It used to be that the flow of student mobility was motivated by academic and development goals couched within colonial and post-colonial links. Typically, the flow was from colonies or former colonies to the colonial host (e.g., from Malaysia, Australia and other Asian and African colonies of the old British Empire to the UK; from the Philippines to the USA) or from less developed to more developed countries. Currently the flow is within new economic groupings like the European Union (EU). For example, even without any actual historical links or financial incentives, the number of EU students studying in the UK has increased 600% in a decade. Australia, which has never had any historical or political links with its East Asian and South East Asian neighbors has extensive enrollment from these countries, which reflects the emergence of new regional market grouping (Scott, 1998). According to Scott (1998), international mobility in today's global environment is largely determined by economic and open-market exigencies. The drop in student mobility from Southeast Asian countries in the late 1990's was clearly due to economic instability (i.e., currency fluctuations) in countries of the region (Bruch & Barty, 1998).

These types of development underscore the dependence of student mobility on highly volatile market forces.

In summary, one of the oldest exemplars of internationalism in higher education has grown stronger in the past decades. However, international student mobility is currently driven and shaped by market considerations, rather than goals related to ideals of having international cooperation or an international character in scholarship.

Faculty Exchange and Development. A model of international education that is related to student mobility is academic staff mobility, which often takes the form of faculty exchanges and faculty development programs. This is linked to student mobility because in some cases the students who study in other countries are actually faculty members of local colleges and universities who get advanced training in foreign institutions.

As it is with international student mobility, the flow of assistance in faculty exchange and development programs were traditionally framed within geo-political alliances that were colonial and neo-colonial in nature. In the Philippines, for example, the longest standing faculty exchange and development programs are those with the USA. These include the Colombo Scholarship Plan (from the 1950's and 1960's), the East-West Center Scholarships, and the Fulbright Scholarships (Caoili & Valenzuela, 2000). However, more recently, countries that do not have as strong historical and political links with the Philippines have initiated faculty exchange and development programs. The onus for such programs seems to be related to emerging trade and other economic relations. For example, there have been strong faculty development programs sponsored by the governments of Canada (through the Canadian International Development Agency and the International Development Research Centre Program), Australia (Australian International Development Agency Programs), France (Alliance Francaise), Japan (Monbusho Scholarhips, Japan International Cooperation Programs, and the Oversearch Economic Cooperation Fund), among others (Caoili & Valenzuela, 2000).

The Fullbright Fellowships Program is perhaps the largest and most successful program promoting faculty exchange and cooperation at present. The Fulbright Program was established in 1946, at the end of World War II, to increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and other countries, through the exchange of persons, knowledge, and skills (Department of State Fulbright Program, 2001). Regarding faculty exchange and development, Fullbright grants are made to citizens of participating countries, primarily for university teaching, advanced research, and graduate study. Specific examples of these grants include the Fulbright American Scholars Program (which sends around 800 American faculty members to other countries annually), and the Fulbright Visiting Scholars Program (wherein about 800 non-American faculty members come to the US to lecture or conduct research in US colleges and universities annually). According to the Fullbright website: "Since the program's inception, more than 85,000 U.S. Fulbrighters have traveled abroad to lecture or conduct research in a wide variety of academic and professional fields ranging from journalism and urban planning to music, philosophy and zoology. More than 144,000 foreign

citizens have come to the United States under Fulbright auspices." According to Burn (1988), the Fulbright program is quite successful in fostering experiences and developing attitudes that promote a commitment internationalizing education, a global and multicultural worldview, and in supporting cross-cultural contact. She further argues that these cross-cultural experiences of faculty members are very critical in sustaining efforts of higher education institutions to internationalize their curriculum, instruction, and other organizational programs.

Research Collaboration. A more specific form of faculty exchange and development focuses on research collaboration. Some faculty exchange programs (e.g., the Fulbright programs, the Monbusho programs, etc.) have specific components directed at promoting research collaboration among faculty and scholars from different countries. Traditionally, research and knowledge production was an self-contained activity within universities. In the past, the exigencies of research hardly required for collaboration among scholars from different countries (except perhaps in topics that involve area studies or international studies). Academic scholars could pursue active research programs while remaining within the confines of their own universities, libraries, laboratories, and research sites. All this has been changing in the past couple of decades, and the changes can be attributed to the change in the nature of knowledge production required in a globalized world economy.

Knowledge plays a much more important role in today's globalized market economy. According to Salmi (2000), competitive advantage is best gained from the use of knowledge, particulary in one's "ability to acquire and apply technical and socio-economic knowledge." He further states that, "the proportion of goods with medium-high and high level technology content in international trade has gone from 33% in 1976 to 54% in 1996. Today, economic growth is more of a process of knowledge accumulation than of capital accumulation." We can cite very specific cases in point. According to Nishikawa (1997) for example, the knowledge service area represented 25% of the GDP of Japan in 1985, but in the year 2000 it represented 32% of GDP. Clearly, the demand for new and more sophisticated forms of knowledge is growing. Another important consequence of this strong demand is the fact that higher education institutions now have many competitors in the knowledge production process. Thus we have an expansion on the demand side of knowledge production (i.e., for more sophisticated knowledge) and a similar expansion on the supply side (i.e., more individuals with research and knowledge production capabilities). According to Gibbons (1998a) the situation creates a new distributed knowledge production system, wherein a large number of highly varied institutions in different locations produce very specific but diverse types of knowledge.

Within this distributed knowledge production system, higher education institutions no longer enjoy privileged status. The new environment requires the higher education institutions rethink and recast their knowledge production systems in ways that will allow them to compete and thrive within this distribution knowledge production system (Gibbons, 1998b; Nishikawa, 1997). Collaboration among higher education institutions, and even among higher education institutions in different countries, is one of the most strategic responses to these new demands. It seems that the collaboration needs to go beyond the short-term and self-contained exchange research fellowships presently

supported in programs like the Fullbright and the Monbusho. Instead, the collaborations ought to be strategically conceived, sustained, and organized with effective communication systems, so that the partner institutions can effectively compete with other participants in the knowledge production process (Gibbons, 1998b).

A particularly successful exemplar of such a collaboration program is the Acciones Integradas, a cooperative program between the UK and Spain (Elliot, 1998). The program was initiated in 1983 and is financed by each party contributing over 163 million dollars annually to prime research linkages between institutions that account for 80% of all British and Spanish universities. According to Elliot (1998), a recent survey showed that the various research collaborations in the program have gone on to win at least 77 million dollars more in additional research grants, and have produced over 1000 publications in refereed journals, 35 books, 61 conferences, and 6 patents.

Internationalizing Curricula: Foreign Language Study. Another model of the earliest expressions of internationalism in higher education is the development of curricula that have an international component or some international character. The simplest expression of this approach is the inclusion of foreign language requirements in the general education curricula of undergraduate programs. Traditionally, a liberal arts education required the development of proficiency in at least one foreign language, consistent with the vision of internationalism in higher education. As higher education requirements became more pragmatic and oriented towards professional skills development, such foreign language requirements became more and more scarce. In the Philippines, all college students used to be required 24 units of Spanish until the late 1970's. Now, very few college degree programs require any courses in foreign languages other than English.

However, there are recent trends towards bringing back such requirements in higher education programs. Moreover, there are moves to even strengthen the foreign language base in the basic education programs. The trend seems to be strongly motivated by economic considerations. A global economy requires that the participants in market and related activities have some level of proficiency in foreign languages, specifically English and the languages of the other leading economies and/or markets. Being able to speak a foreign language provides individuals with a competitive advantage in a globalized world economy (Cooper, 1988). Thus, many countries are systematically incorporating foreign language requirements in their basic and higher education curricula.

In the United States, several institutions have implemented new foreign language requirements using alternative frameworks; in particular, the use of total immersion for foreign language learning (Reardon, 1997). In St. Olaf College, students with intermediate proficiency in a second language are allowed to study humanities, behavioral sciences, natural sciences, and mathematics in a second language by using foreign language texts. The medium of instruction in the classes is still English, but students are also grouped into small (similar language) clusters wherein they can discuss course materials in the various foreign languages. Syracuse University offers one-unit foreign language modules that are couples to three-unit disciplinal courses that are taught

in English. The students become acquainted with the vocabulary and scholarship in the discipline in a foreign language in addition to the typical disciplinal knowledge they would learn from the traditional course. The University of Rhode Island has an expansive program that combines the study of German and Engineering. During their fourth year of study in Engineering, the students participate in a six-month internship in an engineering firm or research institute in Germany and other German-speaking countries in Europe. In the process they develop oral skills and disciplinal vocabulary in German. Students are awarded a B.S. in Engineering and a B.A. in German after they complete the five-year program.

Consistent with developments in the field of student mobility, foreign language study in higher education seems to be transforming in nature and scope. It used to be that the rationale for foreign study was rooted in the spirit of internationalism and couched within colonial or neo-colonial arrangements (e.g., Spanish for Filipinos, French for Vietnamese, etc.). Now the study of foreign languages are framed within more varied frameworks but most of which are clearly designed to address the needs of participating and competing in a globalized world economy.

Internationalizing Curricula: Building International Perspectives. Foreign language study was the simplest expression of internationalizing in the higher education curricula. A more expanded expression can be found in attempts to inject a stronger international quality or character in curricula. Such attempts were aimed at allowing students to study phenomena and understand their realities using a broader, more international perspective, or at least from a perspective other than their own national or cultural perspective (Dale, 1988). This curricular approach attempts to make students realize that their ways of understanding their experiences are often closely tied to assumptions, beliefs, and practices in their country and culture that are shaped by the historical, cultural, economic, and political life of their country - and that people from other countries and cultures that have different histories, cultures, economies and political systems will most likely not understand the same experiences in the same way. In other words, these curricular programs emphasize the historicity and cultural-specificity in the various ways of knowing, and thus aim to rid students of what might be very parochial ways of understanding the world (Reardon, 1997).

The most common expression of this curricular design takes the form of academic programs in international studies and international relations. In recent decades there has been a clear increase in the volume and scope of such programs. In South Korea for example, the Ministry of Education invested 100 billion won over five years to support nine universities in Seoul to open Graduate Schools of International Studies (Koo, 1997). Programs in international studies emphasize language, history, literature, and the high culture of other countries (e.g., China studies, Japan studies) or regional groupings (e.g., East European studies, South American studies, East Asian studies). Programs in international relations tend to have a politico-economic focus. Unfortunately, such programs are being criticized for often failing to be true to the tenets of historicity and cultural-specificity. According to Reardon (19xx) for example, most programs in international studies and international relations draw from scholarship of the West and of

developed nations investigating other cultures and explaining other cultures using the categories and constructs of Western scholarship. In Reardon's words, "the explanatory structures were derived from the study of Western Culture and superimposed on other cultures" (p. 436).

Such criticisms of Western or Eurocentric scholarship, coupled with criticisms about the use of the Western disciplinal categories in scholarship (e.g., Miyoshi, 1991; Perkin, 1996; Said, 1993; Wallerstein, 1991) have prompted many institutions to start inquiring into alternative frameworks and approaches to international studies, and developing genuine international perspectives in the higher education curriculum. Most of the initiatives in this new approach incorporate a strong interdisciplinary and/or multidisciplinary slant. Moreover, these initiatives have gone beyond the confines of international studies and have instead focused on reorganizing the general education curricula around international themes. Reardon (199x) describes the initiatives of two American institutions. St. Lawrence University has introduced a series of two courses in the required core curriculum: "Conceiving the World" and "Cultural Encounters" The first course involves comparing a Western culture with several other cultures with respect to several specific topics. The second course is organized historically and emphasized topics related to cultural change and development as a consequence of cross- or inter-cultural contact. Portland State University has abandoned the traditional distribution model for the general education curriculum that requires students to take mandatory number of courses in the social sciences, humanities and natural sciences. Instead their general education curriculum consists of courses such as "Crossing Borders," "Individual Rights and the Common Good," and "Nature and Environment" that are designed by faculty members from different disciplines and cultures and that integrate in an comprehensive way the non-Western ways of understanding these phenomena (i.e., not as marginalized enhancements). Both the St. Lawrence University and the Portland State University general education curricula have a study-abroad component.

As with the developments related to international student mobility and foreign language studies, the developments related to international studies have also shifted from an agenda of traditional internationalism. The shift involves moving away from the form of internationalism that is actually an imposition of a dominant-culture's perspective in understanding other countries and cultures. Although the earlier discussions stem from rather abstract theoretical criticisms regarding the nature of knowledge and understanding, the shift in perspective is actually more strongly driven by changing demands in the global workplace (Christensen, 1988; DiBaggio, 1988). According to Goodman (1996) for example, corporate executives and government officials are now looking to employ individuals that have skill to act flexibly and strategically from one project and region of the world to another. Such individuals need to have a perspective of the world that is more consistently reflects the diversity of worldviews in various parts of the globe. Thus, the demands of a globalizing world economy are still strongly shaping the nature of the transformations in the internationalizing curricula.

International Networks. Another traditional expression of internationalism in higher education is the formation of international networks of higher education

institutions and/or programs. In some ways, such networks are the most public and visible expressions of internationalism - colleges and universities from different countries and regions of the world coming together *a la* United Nations in cooperation to address the noble vision of universal scholarship. Within such networks, the goals and implementation of most of the models discussed earlier are greatly facilitated. The oldest networks of higher education institutions have been linked to geo-political alliances of the world order. A good example of such is the linkage among Commonwealth countries that has programs administered by the UK (through agencies like the British Council & the Overseas Development Administration) that include student and faculty mobility, faculty development and collaboration, institutional and program development, area and English language studies, among others (Elliot, 1998; Gibbons, 1998a).

Other networks of long-standing are actually lose alliances with very modest agenda related to cooperation and development. One example is the Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of Higher Learning (ASAIHL), which was founded in 1956 by eight universities. It now has 152 member institutions from 14 countries, including some from outside the Southeast Asian region (Hong Kong, Japan, Canada, USA, Australia, New Zealand, and Sweden). The purpose of the ASAIHL is

> "to assist member institutions to strengthen themselves through mutual self help and to achieve international distinction in teaching, research, and public service… Specifically, the Association exists to foster the development of the institutions themselves, the cultivation of regional identity and interdependence and liaison with other regional and international organizations concerned with research and teaching." It serves as clearing house of information; provides regular opportunities." (ASAIHL, 2000)

The programs of the ASAIHL include a wide range of activities related to the different models of international education discussed earlier. These include serving as a clearinghouse of information for use of all member institutions, sponsoring an annual seminar where member institutions discuss academic and institutional development topics, facilitating faculty and student exchange, awarding fellowships and scholarships, publishing handbooks, reports, bulletins, newsletters, among others. The network provides opportunities for cooperative development efforts but these efforts are highly non-intrusive and they are not programs that aim to more aggressively transform higher educational systems relating to curriculum, administration, organization, financing, among others. As such, the impact of such networks seems to be rather limited.

More recently, new forms of networks have been formed. Such networks have a different agenda from the traditional networks formed in the spirit of internationalism. The new networks have a more long-term agenda of transforming the structures of higher education in ways that will more effectively address the demands of a globalized world economy. For example, the international programs of the European Union have effectively overwhelmed the network of Commonwealth nations. The international

programs of ERASMUS and SOCRATES have been very successful in facilitating a more large-scale exchange among students and faculty. The long-term goal of the ERASMUS and SOCRATES is to reduce the social, economic, and cultural disparities among the countries of the European Union. The policies that have been set up to facilitate the cooperation programs have also had the consequence of challenging the traditional curricular and pedagogical approaches in participating countries, and even the bureaucratic and policy constraints that are in place in different countries. These changes have the net effect of transforming and revitalizing the diverse higher educational systems in ways that make these systems and the institutions within more capable of responding to the challenges of regional cooperation and competition in Europe (Teichler, 1997; 1998).

The ERASMUS and SOCRATES are products of initiatives of a supra-government organization, the EU. Other recent forms of international networking are initiatives of higher education institutions acting on their own (i.e., not under the director of government or other more expansive organizations). A good example is the Universitas 21, which is actually a company (incorporated in the UK) with a network of 18 highly reputable universities in 10 countries from all over the world (Universitas 21, 2001). The purposes and programs of the network are summarized as follows:

> "This network provides a framework for member universities to pursue agendas that would be beyond their individual capabilities, capitalising on the established reputation and operational reach of each member. The Company's core business is provision of a pre-eminent brand for educational services supported by a strong quality assurance framework. It offers experience and expertise across a range of vital educational functions, a proven quality assurance capability and high brand value. Universitas 21 has been established for the purposes of:
>
> "Developing international curricula for graduates educated and trained to operate in a global professional workforce, with credentials that are internationally portable and accredited across a range of professional jurisdictions;
>
> "Providing a quality assurance structure that operates globally to offer *internationally valid processes* for the enrolment, instruction, assessment and certification of students, and an *internationally recognised brand* identifiable with a global network of high quality universities;
>
> "Providing partnership opportunities for major new providers, including corporate universities, wishing to access a fast growing international market for higher education and advanced training;
>
> "Bringing to such partnerships international recognition and legitimacy, premium higher educational branding, a demonstrable quality assurance

> capability, and a proven capacity for producing and delivering quality higher education and training programs. (Universitas 21, 2001)

Although the general agenda and purposes of the network are very clearly defined, the specific programs of the network are still being studied and carefully planned for. The care in the program development processes stems from the need to reckon with the current diversity in the systems and cultures of the different member institutions. That notwithstanding, the rhetoric of the Universitas 21 expresses a clear intention to recast the educational missions and structures of the member institutions in ways that will strategically address the needs of an emerging globalized environment (c.f., Clark, 2000; Gibbons, 1998b, Teichler, 1999). The agenda and purposes are clearly much more aggressive and progressive compared to the agenda and purposes of the ASAIHL, for example. In particular, the discourse of Universitas 21 clearly incorporates the values and constructs of corporatizing higher education institutions and open-market education, whereas the discourse of ASAIHL is still couched in terms of the values and constructs of internationalism and respect for existing structures within nation states.

There are attempts to form a more progressive form of higher education network in the Asia-Pacific Region. In 1997, the Asia-Pacific Conference on the Formation of a Regional Network for Higher Education and Research: Policies, Strategies and Administration (1997) was held at Waseda University in Japan. Participants from various countries in the Asia-Pacific Region shared the attempts to internationalize higher education in their respective countries. Scholars from other parts of the world also shared their own experiences in forming regional higher education networks. Although the participants clearly see the rich opportunities that forming a network would afford especially in rationalizing and facilitating the various approaches to internationalizing higher education, they were also very much aware of the obstacles and issues related to the endeavor. Most of the concerns relate to wide diversity among the higher educational systems covered in the region, the existing inequities among these systems, and the heavy dependence of such an endeavor on equal access to financial resources among the various systems (c.f., Mooney, 1997; Ordoñez, 1997; Teichler, 1997). It is not surprising that these concems mirror the issues that are typically raised in relation to globalization and free-market systems.

In summary, once again we see how globalization is transforming a traditional expression of internationalism in higher education. The new international networks that are being formed have a much more focused and aggressive agenda that seek to transform higher educational institutions and systems in ways that will hopefully make these more responsive to the needs of an emerging global environment.

Open Market Transnational Education

The second cluster of international higher education models can be differentiated from the first cluster in terms of the general goals or purposes for embarking on these "internationalization" activities. That is, the models and activities in the second cluster are specifically designed to capitalize on the opportunities afforded by the changing

demands of a globalized world economy. The institutions that offer these types of international education programs are not primarily concerned with the spirit of international cooperation among different countries. Indeed, the underlying assumption is that countries and national boundaries are no longer real boundaries that ought to constrain the delivery of educational services. Moreover, the pressures and the requirements of globalization will need to be addressed by recasting the very nature of higher education and higher education institutions - their organization, character, and functions (see e.g., Gibbons, 1998b, Teichler, 1999; Salmi, 2000; UNESCO, 1995). Not all institutions of higher education can respond to these pressures and demands with equal ease (Bernardo, 2000); thus, it is not surprising that most of the programs and activities described in this section are fairly "young" institutions that are not yet quite as entrenched with the traditional rules and systems of higher education.

Several assumptions seem to underlie the programs of international higher education in this cluster. First among them would be the idea that national boundaries need to be transgressed to ensure that higher educational institutions can maximally service the target clientele. There is also the assumption that higher education institutions will need to service a more diverse profile of students and that these students require a different set of skills and knowledge in order to be competitive in the global environment. These students are in different circumstances in life - some have already been working for several years, some are working while studying, and some might even be studying only for specific job-related purposes. These students will need to be reached by considering a wider variety of modes of delivery, some using advanced technology, some requiring a greater extent of geographic mobility, and often there will be a mix of delivery modes in one program. At the same time, there is recognition of the need that some new but common form of quality control to govern these new structures and systems. Thus, we see a variety of types of program offerings that differ in organization and in character from the traditions programs offered by typical higher education institutions. The six models of international higher education in this cluster follow the same classification defined by McBurnie & Pollock (1998).

Distance Education. "Traditional" or "stand-alone" distance education as defined as programs where students pursue independent study within a provider institution's non-residential programs. This very broad definition includes both full-time and part-time study and a wide variety of delivery systems in the distance mode (e.g., printed modules, correspondence courses, radio, television and other mass broadcast media, internet bulletin boards, blackboards, etc.).

Distance education programs themselves are not necessarily "international." However, this form of delivering education is quite extensively utilized in providing higher education services across countries. Course materials may be transmitted from the provider institution to the student through post mail, the Internet, satellite, or other means. Student assignments and other requirements are sent back to the institutions for evaluation and feedback through similar means. In some cases, students are required to travel to the provider country for some hands-on, laboratory, or internship activities. Still

in other cases, examinations of students are done locally under supervised conditions arranged for by the provider institution.

Many successful exemplars of this mode of international education can be found all over the globe. The University of the South Pacific, for example, provides distance learning to students spread across a 30 million square kilometer geographic area. According to Jurich (2000), this university offered 174 distance credit courses that enrolled 16,317 students in 1997 alone. Turkey's Anadolu University has almost 600,000 students, most of who live in Germany, and other European and Asian countries. The university uses the facilities of the national broadcasting network of Turkey for the delivery of lectures and course materials (Jurich, 2000). The African Virtual University is another example of an international distance education program. It operates in 16 countries and offers mainly professionally and technically oriented programs. Lectures are done by professors from well-known higher education institutions in Africa, Europe, and North America, and the lectures are presented to students through videotapes or live broadcasts via satellite or fiber optics uplink (Diagne, 2000).

Language is the clear limiting factor in this model of international education. The reach and popularity of such programs is constrained by the main language used by the institutional provider. Although information and communication technology can enable and enhance this mode of international education, there are other modes of transmitting information through distance mode. Thus, technology is more of an enabling factor to allow for better efficiency in reach, but it is not a limiting factor for traditional modes of international distance education.

Since technology is an enabling factor for the maximum effectiveness of the programs, the quality of these programs largely depend on how well the distance-mode learning materials and environment are designed for the specific type of learners who use the distance mode. Such programs demand that the students be very mature, independent, and strongly motivated. Currently there is still much debate as to whether the alternative delivery systems used to provide for distance education are designed well enough to provide adequately for the educational goals of the special types of students who matriculate through distance mode (see e.g., Merisotis & Olsen, 2000; Olsen, 2000).

Locally Supported Distance Education. Locally supported distance education is also referred to in some countries as "taught distance education." What differentiates this type of distance education from the standard distance education is the mixed mode of study. That is, the education is provided using a combination of classroom-based instruction and independent study, using the provider institution's curriculum and materials. Thus students usually have access to a locally study center, which may be owned and operated by the provider institution, or may be set-up under a variety of joint-venture arrangements. There may even be "face-to-face academic input" in very brief and concentrated periods for seminars and workshops. In addition, the local study centers provide for library, computers, teaching and learning areas, teachers and/or tutors.

The Technical Institute of Monterey in Mexico is an example of a locally supported distance education, although at present its offerings are not yet international (Wolff, 2000). The institute offers undergraduate and graduate programs in technically and professionally oriented areas, and had 70,000 students in 26 campuses throughout Mexico in 1997. Their educational model has three components: (a) instruction - which follows the conventional teacher-based models but is delivered through live satellite transmission broadcast and the Internet; (b) self-study - which is the student contribution to the learning process and involves sourcing books, notes, Internet websites, among others, and (c) collaboration - group activities that are facilitated through the Internet and the local study centers.

Another interesting example of the mixed mode of study can be found in the programs of the University of Phoenix in the US. As with the Technological Institute of Monterrey, the programs are still not international but they already enroll 68,000 students in 81 campuses and learning centers (Jackson, 2000). What makes this program interesting is that students are allowed to gain course credit for competencies and skills gained from prior learning experiences. For example, students are allowed 30 credits for workshops, seminars and other institutionally sponsored courses, and another 30 credits for learning from experience that is verified to be equivalent to learning from specific college courses.

The requirement of having local study centers makes it more difficult to adopt this mode of distance learning for distance education overseas (hence, the examples). However, according to the Global Alliance for Transnational Education (McBurnie & Pollock, 1998), there are Australian higher education institutions that do have locally supported distance education programs in countries in the Asia-Pacific region.

Twinning Programs. The concept of twinning programs involves the implementation of a fully taught educational degree program in two sites, the provider institution in one country and a host institution in another country. In other countries like Australia and other Commonwealth nations, twinning programs are called offshore programs. In some ways, twinning programs are like thee locally supported distance education programs, but the twinning programs do not make use of alternative delivery systems other those actually used in the provider institution. Students follow exactly the same curriculum, use the same materials, have the same lectures, and have to pass the same examinations. The academic teaching staff is typically from the host country, but they are selected by the provider institution following the same hiring criteria.

In Australia, twinning or offshore programs typically involves doing part of the coursework in the host country and part in the provider country. In Australia-Malaysia twinning programs, the terminology "2+2" or "3+1" is commonly used to refer to two years of study in Malaysia and two years in Australia, or three years in Malaysia and one year in Australia, respectively. Although in some cases, the course is taught completely offshore.

Australia is probably the leading country with such twinning/offshore programs. In 1999, 35 Australian universities had 581 offshore programs on-going, more than 70% of which were in Singapore, Malaysia and Hongkong (Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, 1999). However, Australian Universities follow very strict requirements before a twinning/offshore program is approved. Typically, extensive documentation is required involving information regarding matters such as, providing evidence of the demand for the offshore program, an analysis of how the offshore program will be comparable to the residential and other competing programs, a business plan, a risk management plan, teaching-learning resources, among others (see e.g., RMIT University, 2000).

The financial arrangements in such twinning programs are mutually beneficial for host and provider institutions. The provider institution gains the tuition and fees that students typically pay, without having to spend for the full costs of residential education. Moreover, provider institutions typically charge additional fees for the maintenance of an offshore/twinning program. On the side of the host institution, they also gain fees related to managing and maintaining the local site. All these added fees are, of course, shared by (i.e., passed on to the) students.

Such programs are attractive to students in host countries, because the students acquire credentials from a foreign institution without the full cost of enrolling in a foreign country. Although typically, the students pay tuition fees equivalent to that in the foreign country (and possibly more), the students still save substantial amounts that would have been spent on travel-related expenses (processing of immigration papers, airfare, accommodations, etc.). The credentials received from such programs also enjoy better regard than those related to distance-learning programs, as the students are perceived to undergo an educational process that is still close to the traditional university experience.

Articulation Programs. Articulation programs are in many ways similar to twinning programs. However, the students are not enrolled in a program of a foreign country. They are still enrolled in a program in a local institution. However, the credits earned in the local institution are fully recognized for credit by the provider institution. This recognition facilitates the lateral entry or admission of students to the programs of the foreign provider institution. So for example, the first two years of study in a local university will earn the student a diploma or an associate degree from the local university. This diploma or associate degree will be recognized by the foreign university as sufficient for admission into the last one or two years in the baccalaureate program of the foreign institution.

Such programs are quite attractive because the student has a chance of obtaining foreign credentials by attending only one or two years in a foreign institution. The costs are likely to be lower than for a twinning program, as the local rates for tuition and fees are applied during the first years of study.

However, articulation programs may have the effect of thinning the enrollment for the major programs of the host institution. The host institution is used mainly for the

provision of the basic general education component of undergraduate education. Students who can afford the one or two years in the foreign university will most likely not stay in the local institution. In this regard, the articulation programs are usually hosted by institutions that do not aspire to strengthen the advanced educational components (i.e., major courses and graduate programs) of their own program offerings. In this way, the local host institution might enjoy an increase in enrollment in the general education offerings (which do not require high human capital costs). At the same time the foreign provider institution can focus its own resources on the more specialized or major offerings (and thus focus their investments on the high end of human and other capital requirements) and gain additional foreign student enrollment in the process.

Branch Campuses. In some ways, branch campuses are similar to twinning programs. However, in the strictest sense, branch campuses are full-fledged campuses of the provider institution in a foreign country. Programs of the provider institution are offered in the branch campus, and the programs are implemented fully from admission to graduation. Thus, no other local institution is involved as a partner in the enterprise. However, the campus may either be fully owned by the provider institution, or a joint venture with local partners (particularly if local regulations prohibit full ownership of educational institutions by foreigners.)

Such programs are rare, as the full-fledged universities are careful about replicating their campuses in a foreign land as they risk their institutional reputations if the administration of the branch campus is not handled well in very different conditions. It is typically the smaller higher educational institutions that focus on more professional and technical programs that venture into such branch campuses, as the risks are probably lower in their cases. The market for such branch campuses in the host country might not also be very large in such cases, as only the appeal of foreign credential could be the selling point. There might not be a strong "brand name" that could be marketed on top of the foreign credentials.

Franchising Arrangements. Under franchising arrangements, a foreign institution grants a host institution in a country the "license" or permission to offer the foreign institution's degree programs under specified conditions. A number of observers have raised concerns about the practice of franchising. In particular, the concerns are about the ethics regarding using an institution's name. As a result of this concern, many countries are more cautious about entering such arrangements. According to McBurnie and Pollock (1998), for example, no Australian university has entered into a franchising arrangement.

Internationalizing Curricula: Quality Assurance and Standards. Quality assurance and standards have always been a concern of higher education institutions, but this concern has always been addressed through more local or national efforts such as a national accrediting system, or national minimum requirements and curricular standards, among others. One development that was given birth by the globalization of higher education was the "internationalization" of these quality assurance systems and standards. As the products of the higher educational systems now have to compete in an

open market economy, there is now a need to ensure that credentials obtained from higher education institutions from different countries are equivalent. Thus, the quality of one student's credentials is no longer assessed in terms of local standards; there are now regional and international standards against which credentials are evaluated.

Parallel to this trend, international groups have been formed to articulate such standards, and the product are so-called, international benchmarks for curriculum, student achievement, among others. One of the more famous of these groups is the International Association for the Evaluation of Education Achievement (IEA), which is an international cooperative organization of research centers, which are independent from the respective national governments. Presently there are 54 research centers representing 53 countries (Belgium has two research centers on each for the French and Flemish education sectors) from 6 continents. The objective of the IEA is "to conduct comparative studies that focus on educational policies so as to enhance learning within and across systems of education" (IEA, 2001). The studies conducted by the IEA can be characterized with the following features:

> "They are conducted on an international and a cooperative basis. As such they allow researchers and policy makers to enter into a dialogue with and to learn from their colleagues around the world.
>
> "They also enable systems of education to view more clearly their unique cultural situation from an international, comparative perspective.
>
> "They focus on educational policies and practices, thereby enabling the development of a conceptual framework that clarifies issues, suggests appropriate methods of investigation and uses those analytic tools that best elucidate key factors and issued related to student achievement. These actions result in validated measures of educational outcomes and processes." (IEA, 2001)

However, the studies of the IEA mainly focus on basic education; the most famous of these are the achievement, curriculum, and teaching benchmarking studies of the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS, 2001).

Although there is no corresponding organization doing exactly the same type and scope of work in higher education, there are groups such as the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE, 1999). The INQAAHE is a formal network of organizations responsible for assuring quality post-secondary education programs offered by institutions other than their own. These include accrediting agencies, higher education institutions that accredit other institutions, government or private commercial agencies that evaluate and/or undertake accreditation activities. The main purpose of the INQAAHE is to collect and disseminate information on current and developing theory and practice in the assessment, improvement and

maintenance of quality in higher education. The INQAAHE has set several specific goals:

> promote good practices in the maintenance and improvement of quality in higher education;
>
> facilitate research into the practice of quality management in higher education and its effectiveness;
>
> be able to provide advice and expertise to assist the development of new quality assurance agencies;
>
> facilitate links between accrediting bodies especially insofar as they operate across national borders;
>
> assist members to determine the standards of institutions operating across national borders;
>
> permit better-informed international recognition of qualifications;
>
> be able to assist in the development and use of credit transfer schemes to enhance the mobility of students between institutions within and across national borders; and
>
> enable members to be alert to dubious accrediting practices and organizations.

Such networks provide an important mechanism to allow institutions to address the problems of quality higher education and quality assurance. As Hilborne (1996) found out, there is so much diversity in the educational tradition, culture, funding, quality assurance and the accreditation of quality awards across countries, so much so that there is even a problem of agreeing on a common definition of good practice in higher education. The INQAAHE and other similar networks provide a platform, which would, hopefully, allow for a framework that will allow for effective quality assurance across countries.

Summary of Models of International Higher Education

The preceding sections showed a diverse range of activities that are presently referred to as international education. The activities that were more recently initiated were clearly envisioned to make higher education programs more attuned and responsive to pressures and opportunities in a globalizing environment. These new pressures call for more varied modes of providing higher education to enable a very diverse range of individuals to acquire more sophisticated levels of knowledge and skills that are needed to be competitive in this new environment. Thus, the new models of international education feature alternative delivery systems, usually capitalizing on the revolutions in

information and communication technology, and strategic alliances and collaborative efforts among various institutions that can more efficiently provide for different levels of educational needs. On the other hand, the more traditional activities of international education were born out of the spirit of internationalism and cooperation. These activities were initiated to develop an international quality to activities that were mainly confined in national and local contexts. However, the preceding sections indicate that many of these traditional modes of international are being transformed in ways that make these also more attuned and responsive to the pressures and opportunities afforded by globalization.

Part 4
Philippine Higher Education: A Brief Overview

In this section, we attempt to summarize some of the important features of Philippine higher education that are relevant to the discussions on international higher education. The discussion in this section does not aim to be comprehensive; rather, the discussion focuses on a confined set of features that will directly bear on the viability of the various models of higher education in the Philippine context. The discussion points are organized around four main themes: efficiency, quality, equity in access, external context.

The arguments and supporting data are culled from several important reports, listed below:

> *Philippine agenda for educational reform: The PCER Report* (Presidential Commission on Educational Reform, 2000)
> *Philippine education for the 21st Century: The 1998 Philippine education sector study* (Asian Development Bank & World Bank, 1998); *Technical background paper No. 3: Higher education in the Philippines* (Asian Development Bank & World Bank, 1998)
> Efficiency and effectiveness (E. Tan, R. Borromeo, & C. Castel, in *The reform and development of higher education in the Philippines*, UNESCO Philippines, 2000)
> Meeting the challenges on access and equity of higher education (M. Ibe, R. Perez, & C. Quebengco, in *The reform and development of higher education in the Philippines*, UNESCO Philippines, 2000)
> *State of Philippine education: Tension between equity and quality* (J. R. Cortes & N. R. Balmores, UP-CIDS, 192)

Efficiency

A number of concerns have been raised regarding the internal and external efficiency of the higher educational system in the Philippines. Some of these concerns are discussed in this section.

Proliferation of Public Institutions. As of 1999, there were 1357 higher education institutions in the Philippines. Of this total, 1147 (84.5%) are private

institutions and the rest are state colleges and universities (108) and CHED supervised institutions (102). About 75% of higher education students is enrolled in private institutions (CHED, 1997). However, the share of private institutions in higher education delivery has decreased significantly since the mid-1960's with the increase in the number of publicly funded higher education institutions. The number of state colleges and universities increased by over 30% in the 1990's.

This proliferation of public intuitions is problematic for several reasons (Johanson, 1998). First, it requires substantial increases in public subsidies for higher education at the expense of basic education. In 1999, public institutions accounted for over 14% of the national education budget, up from over 9% in 1996. As the social returns of higher education are low (the returns are largely personal) compared to basic education, increasing the share of the higher education is not a cost-effective move.

Second, as the public funds available for higher education are scarce, creating more public higher education institutions dilutes spending on these institutions.

Third, as most of the new public institutions are actually formerly secondary institutions that were upgraded to tertiary institutions, they quality of educational services provided by the public institutions tend to be of poor quality.

Fourth, the public institutions crowd out the private institutions in most cases. In many cases, the public institutions are located in the same geographic region where there is already a high density of private institutions. The public institutions also offer the same program as the private institutions. As the tuition and fees of the public institutions are much cheaper than most private institutions, the former ends up crowding out the latter.

Finally, as public schools have a higher per student cost (P15,702/student in 1997) compared to private schools (P5,119/student), the crowding out of private institutions makes the entire higher education system more costly and less cost-effective. Reports indicate that if public institutions operate at the same cost per student as private institutions, the government would save 5 billion pesos in one year alone.

Efficiencies of Size. There are also indicators that the organizational features of the existing institutions are inefficient. In 1997, the average enrollment was about 2,500 students in public institutions and 1,750 for private institutions. From 1990 to 1997, the number of public institutions increased by 26% and private institutions increased by 38%. This suggests that the current institutions are too small and could be made more efficient through enrollment growth and institutional mergers.

Student Flows. Another indicator of low efficiency of the Philippine higher education system is the average survival rate of 49% (1997 data). This means less than half of those who enter college or university were able to reach the fourth year of studies. Moreover, the average graduation rate is only 61%, which means that only 3 in every 5 students in the fourth year of study actually graduate within the fourth year. The overall

completion rate for the higher education system, therefore, is about 30%. These statistics indicate that the actual cost per graduate (i.e., average number of student years of instruction required to produce one graduate times the average cost per year) is quite skewed. The financial waste, particularly of public funds, is equally high for those students who eventually drop out without completing their degree.

Articulation between Performance and Budget. Most institutions operate using historically based budget systems. That is, this year's budget is usually last year's budget with a specific proportion of adjustment. Thus, there exist no objective means or measures for rationalizing budget allocations. This form of budget system perpetuates the existing inefficiencies in the resource allocation practices. This form of inefficiency is much more pronounced in public institutions, as private institutions have stronger incentives to make efficient use of income.

Programs. The Philippine higher education system is also criticized for having low external efficiency. The range of program offerings will indicate that higher education institutions tend to offer degree programs that are of low priority but are less expensive to maintain (e.g., business/commerce, teacher education), and not high priority programs (e.g., science, technology, and graduate education) that will have stronger long term social returns. The latter programs are more expensive but have low return of investment for the institutions. Moreover, there is low market demand for the latter programs, as these tend to be more expensive and are not perceived to be good vehicles for attaining immediate and high-earning employment.

Quality

It is quite difficult to arrive at a common agreement regarding how quality higher education should be defined. For purposes of this overview, we refer to a few indicators of quality, as regards the inputs, processes, and outputs of the higher educational system.

Faculty. Data from the Commission on Higher Education (1997) indicate that only 7% of faculty members of higher education institutions have doctoral degrees, and only 33% have some graduate qualification (i.e., Master's degree or equivalent specialized training). Thus, about 2/3 of all those handling higher education courses only have Bachelor's degrees. In the areas of science, engineering, business and information technology, those with graduate degrees account for less than 20% of the faculty. If we consider that in most institutions, doctoral and master's degree holders are given administrative positions and other non-teaching assignments, the overwhelming majority of higher education holders are handled by Bachelor's degree holders. One reason for the relatively low educational attainment of higher education faculty is the fact that many higher education institutions are actually secondary institutions that were grouped together and upgraded to the tertiary level. Moreover, the incentives for faculty members who finish graduate degrees is not perceived to be commensurate to the financial and other personal costs that faculty members have to invest to complete a graduate degree. Finally, graduate education in the Philippines is also not large enough to meet the internal needs of the higher educational system for qualified faculty.

The impact of this deficiency on the quality of education is easily perceived by the students. In a tracer study of graduates of Philippine colleges and universities, the faculty obtained the lowest quality rating among the respondents (CHED, 1998).

Instructional Facilities. An important resource for assuring quality higher education is the institution's library. Surveys indicate that most institutions have very low absolute volumes of acquisitions, and extremely low utilization rates of books (from zero to five borrowings per year, even from the faculty members). According to Cortes (1993, in CHED, 1995) found that the majority of higher education institutions had only 2,500 to 5,000 book titles in their library collections. Subscriptions to disciplinal journals are non-existent in many institutions.

Curriculum. The Commission on Higher Education has set up technical panels to establish minimum requirements for curricular offerings of higher education institutions. However, in most cases these prescriptions tend to be overly detailed specifications of courses that need to be completed. There is no articulation of a framework of cognitive, affective, other target knowledge and skills that the curriculum is supposed to help develop in the students, nor is there an articulation of a framework or system for assessing whether students are attaining the desired knowledge and skills. Observers have noted that often the higher education curricula are too broad, and include too many unrelated topics. The overload of unrelated topics often leads to a superficial coverage of the material.

The overly detailed prescriptions of the Commission on Higher Education prevent institutions from experimenting with better and more innovative curricula, assuming the institutions have the capability of doing so. State colleges and universities have their own charter and are therefore not under the jurisdiction of the Commission. Yet most of these institutions are incapable of and therefore have not developed more progressive and responsive curricula, and for the most part follow the same type of curricula implemented by other types of institutions.

Performance in Licensure Examinations. The most frequently used indicator of quality is the performance in licensure examinations in the various disciplines and professions. The overall passing rates are quite low (around 40% on the average). Unfortunately this low passing rate might even be overstating the quality of higher education institutions as most graduates of higher education institutions who are not likely to pass the exams either do not bother to take the exams or are prevented from doing so by their institutions.

The programs that enjoy high levels of enrollment are unfortunately also those where the students perform badly in the licensure examinations. The passing rate in accountancy is around 16%, for teacher education, 30%, and for civil engineering 32%.

It must be noted that there is a very wide variation in performance among the various higher education institutions. Some of the elite institutions have consistent passing rates of over 90%. Yet there are 293 institutions that have zero passing rates

from 1993 to 1997 (Professional Regulation Commission, 1998). This number corresponds to about 12% of all institutions offering the programs. But the distribution in passing rates is very skewed. A 1995 Task Force of the Commission on Higher Education (1995) studied this matter, and found that there is a big drop in passing rates between the top three universities (Ateneo de Manila University, De La Salle University, University of the Philippines) and the next best schools. Thus an extremely small number of institutions have high passing percentages, and a large majority of institutions have low or even zero passing rates in all programs.

Accreditation. One of the mechanisms that have been set up to improve quality in Philippine higher education is the system of voluntary accreditation. Much progress has been made, particularly in the 1990's, yet so far, only 13.3% of schools nationwide have accredited programs. Most institutions complain that the process of applying for accreditation is too difficult (e.g., requiring the completion of voluminous forms and the compilation of even more voluminous documents) and requires the commitment of substantial financial resources on the part of the institution. Most institutions do not have internal systems for maintaining data on the various quality performance indicators, and thus have to set up task forces and committees with additional staff members to comply with the accreditation requirements.

Moreover, there is a growing concern that the standards being maintained by the various accrediting organizations vary. In particular, the accrediting system for public institutions is widely reputed to be applying rather low standards for accreditation.

Equity in Access

If one looks at statistics, one would not conclude that there is a problem of access to higher education in the Philippines. Based on 1998 data, 2.4 million Filipinos are enrolled in higher education institutions. According to UNESCO statistics, the Philippines ranks 24th worldwide on proportion of higher education enrollment to the general population (2,981 students per 100,000 population in 1995). The number of higher education institutions in the Philippines is purported by some to be second in the world only to the USA (Johanson, 1998). The transition rate between secondary and tertiary education is very high (about 90%) in 1999, so that virtually all students who finish high school get to enter a college or university.

These statistics notwithstanding, there is a real problem of equity in access to higher education institutions in the Philippines. In particular, the problems relate to the following: geographic location of institutions, admission requirements of higher education, and the cost of education and limited financial assistance. The discussion will also show that the problem of equity in access is particularly strong if one considers access to quality higher education (Bernardo, 1997).

Geographic Concentration. Higher education institutions are not evenly distributed in the country if one considers geographic location. Over 31% of all students enrol in institutions in the National Capital Region (NCR), even as the NCR accounts for

only 15% of the national population. In the other regions, higher education institutions tend to be located in or near the urban centers. Given that most higher education institutions are private institutions and are dependent on market demand for their financial viability, it is understandable that these institutions would cluster around the above locations where the higher education market is dense. However, this reality makes it more difficult for students from the rural areas to access higher education, as the financial and social costs of relocating to an urban center are often prohibitive for most families from these areas.

Theoretically, the public institutions should be situated in locations where the private institutions cannot be. Because public institutions are not dependent on tuition for their viability, they should not be subject to the market constraints as private institutions and can thus thrive in areas which have been neglected by private institutions. To some extent the public institutions do address this problem of geographic access. However, statistics still show that the public institutions are still geographically overlapping with the private institutions. Consider the regional distribution, for example. Among the regions, Regions III and IV rank second and third in terms of number of private higher education institution, yet they also have the most number of state colleges and universities. The regional distribution of public higher education institutions does not indicate that these institutions are trying to address the areas that were previously or are presently being neglected by the private sector.

The higher education institutions that are of better quality are also concentrated in few regions. All the five institutions rated as being in Category A by the CHED Task Force (1995) are in the NCR (although, the UP has campuses outside NCR, the better campuses are in the NCR and in a nearby province - Diliman, Manila, and Los Baños). As regards performance in licensure exams, institutions in the NCR consistently post higher passing rates compared to those from other regions (PRC, 1998). Thus, high school graduates from other regions not only have problems of access to higher education; they also have less access to quality higher education programs.

Admission Requirements. The problem of equity in access to quality education is linked to the variety of admission requirements in the different higher education institutions. The better quality institutions have selective admission policies. Most of the students who meet the stringent admission requirements are those who come from elite private sectarian high schools and the few special science high schools. Thus, the larger majority of high school graduates who come from public high schools and non-sectarian private schools, where the quality of education is lower, have poor chances of getting admitted to these quality educational institutions. Instead, they go to the low-end public or non-sectarian private institutions with open admission policies. Thus, according to James (1991), the elite colleges and universities draw heavily from the wealthiest and most educated sectors of society.

Unfortunately, this trend applies even to the elite public institutions. The University of the Philippines rejects more than 95% of their applicants. The corresponding figures for the Central Luzon State University and thee University of

Southeastern Philippines are 75% and 90%, respectively. Most of those rejected from these schools are from the lower income families who were not able to afford better quality secondary education, and those who are admitted come from the higher income families. Thus, there exists a rather ironic situation where some students from wealthy families attend public institutions and enjoy highly subsidized tuition and student fees, while some students from poor families have to pay higher tuition and student fees in poorer quality private institutions.

Cost of Higher Education. The most obvious factor related to the problem of equity in access is the cost of higher education. It is true that there is a wide variety in the costs of matriculation. In some schools, the tuition and fees per year is as low as P5,000; while in other schools it is as high as P100,000. Some public institutions still charge a low of P8 per unit, while some private institutions now charge over P1,000 per unit. Other student fees range from P1,000 to P45,000 per year. However, the variety in costs is highly correlated with the quality of education.

Unfortunately, students' choices are constrained by financial resources. There is little or no credit available for higher education, and scholarships are also limited. There are government supported loan assistance programs (e.g., Study Now, Pay Later program), but the beneficiaries of these programs account for 0.2% of the national student enrollment. In terms of scholarships, the CHED provides financial assistance to students who attend private institutions through the Private Education Student Financial Assistance (PESFA) program, but coverage is less than 1% of the total enrollment in private institutions. There are other forms of scholarships for students in public institutions, but these cover about 1.3% of total student enrollment. Because of the limited scope of financial assistance for higher education, most students can pursue only the higher education option that they can afford. According to Tan (1995),

> "the effective demand for higher education follows the income distribution of families - the few rich students can afford all the options, including the best of foreign education; a large number from the middle class can afford institutions with middle-level fees; and the masses of the poor, those institutions with the lowest fees. The poorest families have zero higher education option. This point is reflected in the fee structure of the higher education system. There are only a few high-cost (higher education institutions) since only a small proportion of the population is rich and can afford them… Because of the capital market imperfections a large number of students is forced into the low-quality inexpensive programs and schools, causing these to proliferate." (p. 119)

External Context

Some of the problems discussed in the earlier sections are enabled by certain factors in the external environment of higher education institutions. Three factors will be discussed in this section: the absence of a credit market, inadequate information about higher education options and returns, and governance of higher education.

Absent Credit Market. In the previous section, we already noted that credit for higher education is extremely limited. What is available by way of credit is largely supplied by informal sources (e.g., money lenders, relatives, pawnshops, etc.), and is thus not large enough to cater to the large number of potential small borrowers. The absence of this credit market creates the situation where the financial resources of families and students limit their higher education options (see previous section on *Cost of Higher Education*). This constraint also affects the options of higher education institutions when in comes to program offerings. Most schools operate programs that are less expensive (i.e., do not require costly equipment, special laboratories, etc.). Thus, the proliferation of programs in commerce, accountancy, liberal arts, and teacher education, as these programs can be maintained by using mainly teacher and classroom inputs.

Information on Options and Returns. Presently, there is very little information regarding the various educational institutions and programs and their comparative performance. What exists is not available to the general public. Thus, the higher education market is not provided the necessary inputs to make informed decisions regarding higher educational services. Ideally, students and their families should have access to information such as, school program offerings, performance in licensure exams, credential of faculty, completion rates, the quality of the schools relative to the fees they charge, expected employability and earnings according to the program, institution, and degree level. Some of this information is actually available (e.g., in reports of the PRC, FAPE, CHED, NSO, etc.) but this information is not available to the public in useful forms.

This lack of publicly accessible information about educational options and their returns has perpetuated the inefficiencies, weaknesses, and inequities in Philippine higher education. For example, students unwittingly decide to enroll and pay tuition in poor quality institutions instead of better quality institutions that cost the same. Students enroll in less expensive programs that have low employability and earning potentials. Students enroll in schools that have had zero passers in the licensure examinations. Such decisions allow for poor quality, inefficient institutions to survive, and maybe even make a profit. Yet such decisions would likely be avoided if there was better public information about the options and returns of higher education.

External Governance. Ideally, the imperfections in the higher education environment just discussed in the previous sections would be addressed by the external governing agency of higher education in the Philippines, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED). However, the CHED has not adequately done so, and several factors have been noted to account for this inadequacy. Some of the factors noted by Johanson (1998) are related to the governance of the CHED and the lack of a strategic decision. In particular, the organizational structure, particularly the leadership structure involving five Commissioners, is vague and inefficient. The Commissions do not have well defined and appropriate roles. There is no clear separation between policy-making and execution, or between decision-making and implementation.

Historically, the Philippine higher educational system is expansionist in character and places little importance on quality. In light of this fact, there is a great need for the CHED to reform the character of the higher education system, set different goals and more strategic plans for the system. This is why the original intention was to make the CHED a development agency. But over the years it has turned out to be more of a regulatory agency; and the CHED has not emphasized strategic planning for the system. Much of the CHED's time and resources is devoted to routine regulatory functions such as monitoring special orders regarding the graduation of students. Not enough time and resources is spent on studying strategic issues and trade-offs to improve the system. An external observer noted, "that too many activities are pursued, that efforts and resources are fragmented rather than concentrated to make an impact" (Johanson, 1998).

Thus, many sectors perceive the CHED to be an ineffective institution. It has not provided the governance needed to undertake strategic policy and reform initiatives that will address the problems in the higher education environment.

Concluding Remarks

This part of the report painted a rather gloomy portrait of higher education in the Philippines as regards efficiency, quality, access, and the external context, even as the existence of wide diversity in inputs, processes, and outputs was also noted. But it should be noted that the overview was derived from reports that were intended to formulate policy and reform recommendations, and thus it is understandable that the weaknesses of the system were put on the foreground. For purposes of the present report, this generally negative portrait will serve as the context within which international education models will be considered. That is, it is within this context that we shall examine the possibilities and constraints that may be involved in implementing specific models or activities of international higher education. It is also with reference to this context that we will consider the impact of international higher education on Philippine higher education.

Part 5
International Higher Education in the Philippines: Prospects and Issues

How will the Philippine higher educational system respond to the current models and activities of internationalization that are taking form in different parts of the globe? In what ways can these internationalizing activities take shape in the Philippine higher education context? What are the opportunities and constraints related to the setting in of such activities? How will these forces of internationalization change Philippine higher education institutions?

In answering these questions, it is important to recall that most of the present models and activities of internationalizing higher education are now largely shaped by the demands of globalization. Thus, we need to consider factors related to the readiness to participate and compete in a more globalized higher education environment, such as the different indicators of quality and efficiency of Philippine higher education. At the same time, we need to consider how internationalization with globalization might impact on

what is presently a rather problematic higher education system with clear shortcomings in quality, efficiency, and equity in access.

The discussion in the part of the report is divided into two main parts. The first part talks about the opportunities and constraints attendant to the possible implementation of the various internationalization models and activities. The second part addresses the possible consequences of the implementation of such models and activities to the existing processes and structures of Philippine higher education.

Internationalizing Philippine Higher Education: Prospects and Issues

In this section, the different opportunities for participating in the various models of international higher education are discussed in light of the prospects and constraints in the Philippine higher education context. The discussion is organized into subsections pertaining to the different types of activities.

Student and Staff Mobility. The main constraint as regards student and academic staff mobility is financial. As the discussion in Part 3 indicated, current flows in academic mobility are largely determined by the availability of funds for specific directions of exchange. The financial constraints are partly due to the observation that most students and scholars would prefer to study in more advanced higher education institutions (with more reputable faculty members, more extensive libraries and research facilities, etc.) and these institutions are more likely located in the developed countries.

In this regard, the likelihood that more Filipino students and scholars would be able to participate more extensively in such international mobility and exchange programs would be dependent on the availability of funds for this purpose. Thus, students from high-income families, and institutions with sizeable financial endowments would be more likely to participate in international mobility programs. On the other hand, students from low- to middle-income families, and institutions that have inadequate financial resources will not enjoy these programs. In the past, such programs received a boost when government-brokered programs (e.g., the Engineering and Science Education Program or ESEP) were set up. In the absence of such medium- and long-term initiatives, it is unlikely that there will be an increase in the number of Filipino students and scholars participating in such activities.

On the other hand, the prospect seems better for promoting more international students and scholars to study in the Philippines. Although it is unlikely that the Philippines will suddenly be very attractive to scholars from developing institutions, the possibility of promoting student and scholarly mobility to the Philippines is there if one considers other less developed countries. In particular, if Philippine universities can project very clear strengths in specific disciplines and/or professional fields, scholars and students from other developing countries might be attracted to come. In this regard, there needs to be a good reckoning of the areas of relative strength among higher education institutions in the country. However, there needs to be an overhaul of current policies of the Bureau of Immigration and Deportation related to the processing of student visas and

special study permits as the current policies and the corrupt practices that are attendant to the policies' implementation create major disincentives for foreign students and scholars to come to the Philippines.

Internationalizing Curricula: International Studies. In the leading Philippine universities, there exist a few international studies and area studies programs. According to Caoili and Valenzuela (2000), the international dimension is incorporated in curricula of various programs in business and economics, engineering, health, social sciences, and the humanities. However, these initiatives are still small in scale and no major changes in the character of curricula can be observed. This is so because the Commission on Higher Education's various Technical Panels effectively standardize curricular offerings in the various fields of study. Only the leading institutions (those that have level III accreditation) and state colleges and universities can actually experiment with the features of their curricula. It is not surprising that these small initiatives to introduce the international dimension to some curricula are found in the leading institutions in Metro Manila. In other institution and in other regions of the country, the most visible form of internationalization is the offering of foreign language courses.

The prospect of developing more international curricula depends on whether universities will be allowed to frame and construct their own curricula in ways that can meaningfully incorporate the international dimension. If and when institutions are allowed to do so, the limiting factor would be the capability of the institution to offer and maintain such curricular features. Thus, the institutions would have to consider whether their faculty members have the frameworks that can make these international dimensions meaningful to the students in the context of their education. Therefore, universities who wish to develop more "international" curricula should also endeavor to develop a more "international" faculty, that is, faculty members who have a good understanding of globalization and internationalization as these relate to the issues and methodologies in the various disciplines and areas of study.

Research Collaborations. If Philippine universities wish to be more actively involved in international research collaborations, at least two things need to be attended to. First, universities should develop their research capabilities. This means developing better research faculty, research facilities, support services, and research management policies. Second, Philippine universities should be able to identify areas of research where local researchers and research institutions can become significant research partners and collaborators. As discussed in Part 3, there is currently a distributed knowledge production system in place globally. Potential research collaborators will seek partners who have unquestionable research capabilities in areas and/or types of research activities that complement their own research programs.

In this regard, Philippine universities should seriously consider their research development strategies and aim to develop in more narrowly defined niches in research. Given the capital-intensive nature of research activities, it will be difficult for Philippine universities to develop adequate research capabilities in a wide range of fields. A more strategic approach would be for each university to identify its areas of specialization for

research. Hopefully the areas chosen by the different universities will complement rather than compete with the choices of the others; thus, the limited research funds can be allocated more rationally and efficaciously.

The CHED can exercise better and more strategic leadership in this regard. Currently, the CHED's blanket research policy that implicitly requires all higher educational institutions, no matter how miniscule of means, to develop research programs. Understandably, the research agenda of CHED is developmental in intention; however, the development plan is not strategic. The CHED seems to think that all colleges and universities should be research institutions, but this need not be so. In fact the Philippines does not need that many research universities, and it certainly cannot afford that many (Bernardo, 1998). The CHED's present approach does not seem to consider the intensive capitalization and medium-term human resource development efforts that need to be put in place before viable research programs can be set. This is evidenced by the miniscule research grants that are awarded by the CHED that have the effect of adding to the universities burden (as it will have to shoulder much of the actual research costs itself) rather than helping them. Although it has prioritized the areas of research in relation to national development goals, it has not reckoned with structural deficiencies in the vast majority of higher education institutions. As a result there is no efficient means of supporting research activities. In practice, all higher educational institutions are treated in the same way, which often means making decisions that tend to converge with the lowest common denominator (e.g., the project leader is paid a maximum of P3,000 a month in honorarium - a sum that is sufficient to get the faculty member a teaching deloading in a remote state university, but is pittance for a faculty member in the leading private universities). This approach does not make for a more strategic allocation of the limited research development funds.

Interestingly, individual faculty researchers in the leading universities already maintain research collaborations with scholars from other countries. These research links are often maintained at the personal level and depend on existing funds and other resources that the researchers already have access to. But if Philippine universities and researchers will become more active participants in global research, systematic efforts must be undertaken to expand such individual efforts and to ensure their sustainability.

International Networks. In any network of higher education institutions, the biggest bottleneck for greater cooperation is the diversity among the participating institutions. Given the diversity in the inputs, processes, and outputs characteristic of Philippine higher education institutions, it is hard to be optimistic regarding more intensive Philippine involvement in international networks. Currently, Philippine participation in the more progressive international networks is selective. For example, in the UNESCO-affiliated International Association of Universities (IAU), only De La Salle University and the University of the Philippines are members (the former also sits in the Administrative Board of the IFU). Perhaps, only these two and possibly a few other Philippine universities have systems that are similar enough (or that are not too different) from the universities of other countries. It is very likely that some institutions will be

"more different than others" which means that some institutions will have better opportunities for participating in and benefiting from such international networks.

International networks such as the Universitas 21 include as part of their programs the attempt to make the member institutions move towards more similar structures and standards. But it should be noted that the member institutions of Universitas 21 all meet certain minimum requirements and thus form a fairly homogenous grouping.

All things considered, institutions that have stronger capabilities can take advantage of opportunities afforded by affiliation with such networks, but the weaker institutions are not likely to be able to do so.

Transnational Distance Education. The local market for different forms of transnational distance education programs is probably small, particularly as the costs of such programs are prohibitive. As the demand for higher education programs follows the income distribution level of Filipinos, we could expect that the expansion of such programs locally is not likely to prosper unless the costs of the program are substantially reduced.

However, it is possible that a specialized market might exist for such programs. In particular, such programs might be suited for adult and professional students who do not have the time to attend regular classes, but who are well motivated and can be independent learners, as well. The market can be supported by private companies that will see such programs as worthwhile investments in their human resource development programs.

From a different perspective, such distance programs may provide Philippine higher education institutions an opportunity to increase its enrollment base. Specific degree programs can be developed and marketed for a more international or regional audience. The best candidate programs are those where the Philippine institutions already have a relative competitive advantage, but this choice has to be studied more carefully. Clearly, only the more developed institutions would have the wherewithal to develop, package, and market such programs, if at all. There is of course the possibility that unscrupulous agents might run diploma mills out of such schemes, and the appropriate government agencies ought to be ready to police such agents.

In this regard, the CHED has already issued guidelines regarding the operation of open learning and distance education programs (CHED M. O. No. 35, Series of 2000). The guidelines specify a lot of mechanisms to ensure quality control in the programs (e.g., regarding curriculum and materials development, mode of delivery, assessment, support services, and program management), but the guidelines also limit the operation of such programs to institutions that have been designated as Centers of Excellence and Centers of Development, or have been recognized with Level III accreditation.

Twinning and Articulation Programs. The various forms of twinning and articulation programs (i.e., those that will allow students to obtain credentials from

foreign university) will certainly be attractive to many Filipino students. But as with all other options, the actual market for the programs will be determined by costs of such programs, as the income distribution level of Filipino families shapes the options. Currently, some programs of this type already exists, but the institutions are not linked with the high-end foreign institutions and the program offering are also limited to a small range of professional education courses. The Thames International Business School in the Philippines, for example, offers only business and communication related programs following a 2+2 or 2+1 twinning scheme, and that utilize a lot of more innovative delivery systems that utilize information and communication technology. The affiliated institutions are British, Australian, New Zealand, Canadian, and American institutions, which are not in the highest level in terms of academic reputation. The students pay fees that are much more expensive that the typical private college or university, but that are competitive if one considers the costs of international education. Such programs are targeted to the higher end of the higher education market in the Philippines.

It is hard to forecast the actual prospects of such institutions in the Philippines. The high-end market of higher education is obviously very small. The highest end of the market actually already has access to the traditional forms of foreign or international education. Therefore, the viability of such programs is likely to depend on whether or not they will be able to attract the upper middle class market, which traditionally goes to the exclusive private schools in Manila. In this regard, the lure of international credentials might be a critical factor, as most of the exclusive schools as yet do not have similar credentialing mechanisms. In the same vein, the existing high-end (exclusive private) institutions might more directly feel the impact of the entry of such institutions. In a manner of speaking, they are the competition. Given, the imperfect market conditions, particularly the absence of accurate and reliable information about outcomes of higher education, it is hard to say how the market will respond to these new options. The worse case scenario for the high-end private institutions is that some of them might be squeezed out of the market. However, if the private institutions can take steps to provide systems where their graduates also obtain some form of international credentials, they might actually thrive in this competitive environment.

Generally, it seems that all existing "traditional" higher education institutions, whether private or public, should find ways to better position themselves in this new field of competition in the market. This task would require that local institutions find ways of establishing equivalencies with appropriate foreign institutions, so as to set up some form of twinning or articulation program. Most local institutions might find it difficult to adequately respond to these types of challenges, so it seems that only the elite institutions might be in a good position to compete in this new field.

On the whole, the entry of such institutions might not impact the larger proportion of low-end institutions. These low-end institutions will continue to service and maybe even thrive by catering to the low-income sector of Philippine society. The institutions that are most at risk are those that cater to the middle to upper range of the income distribution, as they will be in direct competition with international higher education institutions.

Looking at the matter from another perspective, the high-end educational institutions in the country can appropriate these models of international higher education to penetrate other higher education markets in the region. That is, local institutions that have strong programs in specific fields may consider offering twinning and articulation programs in other countries in the region that have relatively weaker educational options in the chosen fields. The success of such ventures will depend on how well the institutions can market their "brand name," so to speak, to the target countries. In this regard, the requirements usually considered by more developed countries in opening twinning and articulation programs may be used as guides.

As regards these types of programs, the CHED has already approved a memo specifying the policies and guidelines in the implementation of international linkages and twinning programs (CHED M.O. No. 01, Series of 2000). The memorandum order actually seeks to protect local students from unscrupulous agents who might use local institutions as conduits to offer diplomas and substandard education. The main restrictions imposed by the CMO is that only institutions that have at least level II accreditation may participate in such arrangements and only with partner foreign institutions that also have similar high accreditation levels. The CHED shall also be party in the design of the agreements that bind the linkages, and it shall set up monitoring systems for evaluating such programs.

International Quality Assurance Systems. Participation in international quality assurance systems is ideal for institutions that seek to participate in the various forms of open-market transnational education. But as earlier reported, thus far, only around 13% of Philippine higher education institutions have some form of local accreditation; most of the schools are operationally incapable of complying with the requirements of the quality assurance processes. Thus, as with the earlier options, it is most likely that only the more developed institutions that can participate in such systems, if at all. The overwhelming majority of higher education institutions would not be capable of participating, and would thus not be able to benefit from the consequences of such quality assurance systems.

Regardless of the specific motivations for participating in such quality assurance systems, institutions that do participate are likely to improve particular aspects of their operations, in line with the requirements of accreditation.

More importantly, participation in such quality assurance mechanisms should have the long-term effect of improving the public information about quality of higher education institutions (at least as far as certain input and process indicators are concerned). Presently, the general public does not yet know the difference between accredited and non-accredited programs. But if the various institutions start more aggressively using (local or international) accreditation as part of their marketing strategies to attract students, the market might start thinking of accreditation as an important factor to consider.

Summary. The preceding discussions suggest that the ability to participate in the various forms on international education in the Philippines would be constrained by the

same factors that characterize the existing inequities and weaknesses in Philippine higher education. That is, student participation in such activities will be determined by their family income. Their opportunity to participate is likely to increase as they move up in the income level distribution. Moreover, a higher educational institution's ability to participate in similar activities will also be determined by their fiscal resources and how developed their faculty and other educational resources are. The high-end institutions are not only in a better position to participate in the various types of international programs, they can also capitalize on the opportunities afforded by internationalization to further their strengths in specific areas, although there are also threats by way of stronger external competition in specific areas. On the other hand, the overwhelming majority of Philippine institutions will most likely be unaffected by such development. But given the imperfect conditions of the market, especially the strong influence of the income distribution levels on higher education options, their share of the higher education market will probably be secure.

Consequences of Internationalizing Higher Education in the Philippines

As participation in international higher education is most likely to be shaped by the same factors presently determining the character of Philippine higher education, it is quite likely that the internationalizing cum globalization of higher education might have the effect of exacerbating the existing inequities, weaknesses, and inefficiencies in Philippine higher education.

Take for example, the existing disparity in the quality of inputs, processes, and outputs among higher education institutions. The high-end institutions are in a good position to participate, capitalize, and benefit from the various types of international education programs (e.g., faculty exchange, research collaborations, international quality assurance systems, even twinning and articulation programs). If managed properly, the institutions will mostly likely improve the quality of the inputs (student admission, faculty credentials, access to electronic libraries and databases, etc.) and processes (curricular and instructional innovations, monitoring and assessment systems, etc.). On the other hand, the other types of institutions that will have very limited or no participation in such programs will stay in their present state. Most state colleges and universities are unlikely to enjoy sudden increases in their government budget allocations to undertake the improvements needed to participate in international education programs. Similarly, the weak private institutions that depend solely on tuition fees will mostly likely not have the spare income to finance similar improvements. Even if they increase tuition and fees, the law requires that almost all the increase go to improving teacher's salaries, thus not leaving the institutions to the flexibility to strategically allocate whatever additional income they may get on institutional development projects.

Analogously, the inequity in access to quality higher education will also be intensified. The students from high-income families, those that already had the widest range of higher education options, will have even a wider range of options available, if and when various forms of open market transnational education programs start operating more fully in the Philippines. But such options will still be way out of reach for the

majority of students from low- and middle-income families. The lowest quality institutions will continue to cater to the lowest income groups, offering the narrowest range of inexpensive degree programs, all of which have extremely poor quality.

International higher education programs might also have the effect of furthering the external inefficiency of the higher education system. At present, most program offerings of Philippine higher education institutions are inexpensive degree programs that are of low priority in terms of national development concerns. High priority programs or those that are badly needed for regional and national development goals are not being offered. Internationalizing higher education might force institutions to design their program offerings to address human resource development needs of the global market, or even to address the needs of other countries in the new trading blocs. Thus, educational programs will move farther away from addressing the needs in the different regions of the country, further worsening the external efficiency of our higher educational system.

It is not the case, however, that all the possible consequences of internationalization to Philippine higher education are negative. For example, we could be underestimating the effect of internationalizing higher education on improving the middle-level higher education institutions. The opportunities afforded by the changing global work environment might embolden these institutions to realign or redirect their institutional targets and offerings. The global work environment is so diversified that it is possible that specific institutions can design cost-effective but internationally competitive programs in very specific areas that will boost the overall quality of the institutions. All an institution needs is a clear niche to establish its viability and impact, and the institutions could be all set for more effective operations. A case in point could be how the maritime schools in the Philippines, with the assistance of the CHED, were all forced to upgrade their curricula and instruction systems to comply with international standards. A similar development could happen in certain engineering programs that seek to supply human resources for the international market. Of course, in the process of reckoning with these international standards, some very institutions might be squeezed out, but the across-the-board effect of improving quality and the internal efficiency of higher education institutions cannot be discounted.

Similarly, institutions that aspire to participate in some form of international education, for whatever reasons, will have to reckon with international standards of quality, efficiency, among others. Even if the middle- and high-level institutions are not actually able to meet these standards, an attempt by these institutions to internally discuss and negotiate the terms of an international standard, to assess its present systems and outputs, and to reform and improve these will definitely improve the institution, even in the slightest way. It is likely that some inputs, processes, and outputs will be changed and made better than the status quo. If at all, reckoning with higher standards should have the effect of shaking up and maybe improving the institutional culture. These developments are likely if institutions find the means to marshal enough resources for their institutions development needs.

Internationalizing Philippine Higher Education: Some Considerations

Given the above discussions on the possible positive and negative consequences of engaging international higher education in the Philippines, what might be the best approach to this whole issue. How should Philippine higher education address the matter of internationalizing higher education within the context and discourse of globalization?

It seems obvious that other countries would seek to engage Philippine higher education institutions because they see the countries students and institutions as beneficial partners (i.e., as a possible market for their programs, as a possible source of skilled graduates that their economies can absorb). The main question that needs to be reckoned with on our end is: "Why would we want to participate in activities of international higher education?"

Since it is unlikely that international higher education activities will improve equity in access to quality higher education or improve the efficiency of the higher educational system, the best reason to engage in international higher education activities is the possibility of improving the quality of Philippine higher education. Thus, the framework for international higher education in the Philippines should have at its *raison d' tre* upgrading the quality of higher education. All the activities to be engaged in should directly or indirectly address this broad and important concern. As such, the focus ought to be on programs involving strategic cooperation to improve local capacities in the medium and long terms, and programs that internationalize the standards of educational inputs, processes, and outputs, instead of on programs that seek to increase participation in the open market transnational education.

In this regard, one of the foremost issues that need to be clarified is the meaning of "quality" in the present global environment of higher education. In consideration of this global environment, many people are tempted to presume that higher education institutions in the Philippines would best meet these new requirements of quality by foregoing the traditional university functions of knowledge production and verification and instead focusing on other functions in which the Philippines has a competitive advantage (for example, training of the service sector). However, others have argued that such a single-minded focus on specific areas of relative strengths might be dangerous in the medium and long terms. For example, focusing on the service sector might create oversupply in specific labor markets. Moreover, focusing educational investments in one service sector might be too risky as the demands of the global labor market are not stable. The competition in the global labor market is also very stiff, as many countries can also produce skilled services, possibly at lower costs. Thus, there is no guarantee that our competitive advantage in this sector can be maintained.

What can sustain competitive advantage in a global knowledge-based economy is high-end knowledge. In the medium and long terms, the production of new knowledge will prove to be the most important resource of any country. Theoretically, higher education institutions already have some experience in this field. Thus, quality in higher education will still need to focus on factors related to the knowledge production functions of higher education institutions.

However, the indicators of quality are also changing. For example, Gibbons (1998) suggests that the traditional criteria and systems for evaluating quality in higher education are no longer sufficient. The traditional criteria involving peer evaluations of the features of the inputs, processes, and outputs of higher education institutions now need to be expanded. Additional criteria are required by the expanded context of evaluating the work of higher education institutions. Gibbons suggests that criteria related to competitive advantage, cost effectiveness, and social acceptability will have to be reckoned with. Thus, the goals that higher education institutions have to address a more complex and dynamic environment that cannot be fixed for a long period of time.

The resources needed to address these complex and dynamic demands are now distributed across institution within one country and across countries. It is unlikely that individual institutions will have all the resources needed to meet the demands of the new global higher education environment. This is why educational scholars (see e.g., Abramson, Bird, & Stennet, 1996; Gibbons, 1998) are advocating alliances and partnerships among institutions nationally and globally. It is in this regard that Philippine higher education institutions should engage international education activities.

Strategic partnerships can be forged between Philippine and foreign institutions to improve, among other things, the quality of the curricular programs, the qualifications of the faculty members, the nature of the quality assurance systems, and the standards of the educational resources like libraries, laboratories, and other learning materials. In particular, such partnerships can be forged to help a larger proportion of local faculty members obtain advanced degrees in foreign universities, be exposed to alternative content and approaches to instruction and mentoring, among others. Benchmarking of curricular inputs, processes, and outputs with international referents should also be useful for institutions who are in a good position to improve their current curricular programs, as discussed earlier. (However, others have questioned the benefits of international benchmarking for weak institutions and educational systems; see e.g., Vedder, 1994.)

These international partnerships can be especially potent in improving the research capabilities and outputs of the local institutions, as local researchers can collaborate in research and other development endeavors that are increasingly becoming multidisciplinary, international, and multicomponent. Research is a particularly weak area in Philippine higher education, and this weakness is due to many factors related to inadequate financial and human resources needed to maintain a viable research culture (see e.g., Bernardo, 1997). Given that all local higher education institutions including the elite universities in Metro Manila have less than ideal research infrastracture, financial resources, and numbers of skilled researchers, it makes sense to partner with international institutions that can complement the strengths and weaknesses of local institutions.

One of the issues that local higher education institutions have to be concerned with, however, is the status of the local institutions in such international partnerships. In particular, will the local institution be co-equal partners or will they be mere conduits of the foreign higher educational institutions for their global operations. In the global distributed knowledge production system, different institutions will have different

capabilities and resources to bring into the international partnerships, and hence different institutions will have different levels of participation or involvement in such partnerships. Thus, it is conceivable that some local institutions would serve as conduits to foreign institutions, whereas others would participate in more mutually cooperative arrangements with foreign institutions. In research, for example, we can anticipate that some local institutions may forge partnerships wherein their teaching staff will participate by way of assisting in local data-gathering activities. On the other hand, other local institutions may be involved more intensively in the initial research conceptualization processes until the dissemination and publication aspects. In the long term, forging of more mutually cooperative arrangements where local institutions are co-equal partners should be the goal.

One of the important features of discussions on quality in Philippine higher education is the fact that there is a very wide range in levels of quality across the hundreds of higher education institutions. As noted in Part 4, there is a huge gap between the elite higher education institutions and the larger proportion of higher education institutions serving the lower-middle and lower socio-economic sectors of the education market. Within discussions of international partnerships to improve the quality of Philippine higher education, there should also be an explicit attempt to develop networks and partnerships among Philippine institutions in ways that will bridge the quality gap among the local colleges and universities. The imperative that resources be shared to meet complex external demands and higher quality standards is even more necessary in the Philippine context.

Summary

In understanding the prospects of international higher education in the Philippines, we have to reckon with the issue of globalization. We need to find ways of answering the question, "How do Philippine higher education institutions position themselves in relation to these forces of change?"

In what is emerging as a highly competitive field, most of the Philippine higher education system will have much difficulty participating in the global higher education environment because of some very obvious weaknesses within the present system that were discussed in Part 4. The elite institutions that have some clearly defined areas of strength could very well find good opportunities to participate and benefit from the new environment of international higher education. But for the most part, international higher education is likely to intensify the weaknesses in the present system. Most notably, internationalization is likely to exacerbate inequitable access to quality higher education and the poor internal and external efficiency that presently plagues Philippine higher education.

There are several prospects, however, for hoping for better consequences of this global transformation of higher education, particularly for improving the quality of Philippine higher education. The viability of these prospects largely depends on improving or correcting some of the imperfections in the immediate external environment

of higher educational institutions. As it is not the purpose of the study to make specific policy recommendations, I will limit myself to the following broad suggestions.

Recommendations made by previous educational reform initiatives regarding rationalizing the higher education system and reforming the financial systems of higher education should be vigorously pursued in order to improve the internal and external efficiency of the higher education system, and thus make it less vulnerable to the possible negative consequences of international competition.

Related to the recommendations on reforming the financial systems, there should be more intensive efforts to rationalize the scheme for government financial assistance to students and to private financial institutions. Some of the recommendations in this regard include the establishment of an equitable and efficient loan program, voucher systems, and other competitive scholarships and financial assistance program. Such programs should have to important characteristics: (1) it should ensure that all qualified candidates would be allowed to proceed to tertiary education institutions of their choice, and (2) it should introduce competition among the private and public higher education institutions so as to motivate these institutions to improve their outputs. Such interventions would hopefully buffer the effects of internationalization on the current inequities in access to quality higher education.

Recommendations related to the improvement of quality (i.e., quality assurance systems, teacher development, selective deregulation, etc.) should be pursued to motivate institutions to improve quality and efficiency so as to enable more institutions to participate in international education programs. The PCER (2000) recommendation for a large-scale faculty development in the tertiary level should be pursued, in a way that will be consistent with efforts to rationalize the higher education system. Such efforts should enable more institutions to participate and take advantage of the benefits afforded by various types of international education programs.

Finally, government agencies should also ensure that the external environment for higher education institutions should be more conducive for internationalization programs. For example, there could be increased deregulation of the curriculum for accredited and high-performing institutions so as to encourage further innovation and experimentation among the institutions. The CHED could also take a more proactive stance in forging cooperative links in strategic areas of research and collaboration. The appropriate agencies should also study the immigration policies, particularly those that govern the entry of students, scholars, and other educational practitioners, and remove all the disincentives for foreign individuals to enter the country to work in higher education institutions.

Concluding Statements

The intention to participate in activities and programs of international education should not be for its own sake. The discussions in Parts 2 and 3 of this report clearly show that internationalizing higher education is currently embedded within the discourse

of globalization, particularly in the discourses of merging labor and economic markets, and of distributed knowledge production systems. It should be within this broader context that the benefits (and harmful consequences) of international higher education programs should be understood. However, responding to these global movements is not a simple matter, as the features of Philippine colleges and universities are deeply entrenched within the problematic and complex system of higher education in the country that are described in Part 4. Thus, the specific modes of responding to the various modes of international higher education are necessarily constrained by some relevant features of Philippine higher education as discussed in Part 5.

What should be emphasized in all these discussions is the notion that higher education has an important role in the development, validation, and dissemination of knowledge, and in the total development of human potential. Implicit in this role is the responsibility to bridge the inequities that are given in any social context. Indeed, the social returns of higher education relate to these important roles and responsibilities. There are many ways by which Philippine higher education may respond to globalization in higher education. If Philippine higher education seeks to be true to its social responsibilities, it should not respond to these forces in ways that will simply intensify the social inequities that it should be addressing. Instead, it should respond in ways that will move to solve the social inequities in the long term, and that will eventually realize the full potential in all Filipinos.

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