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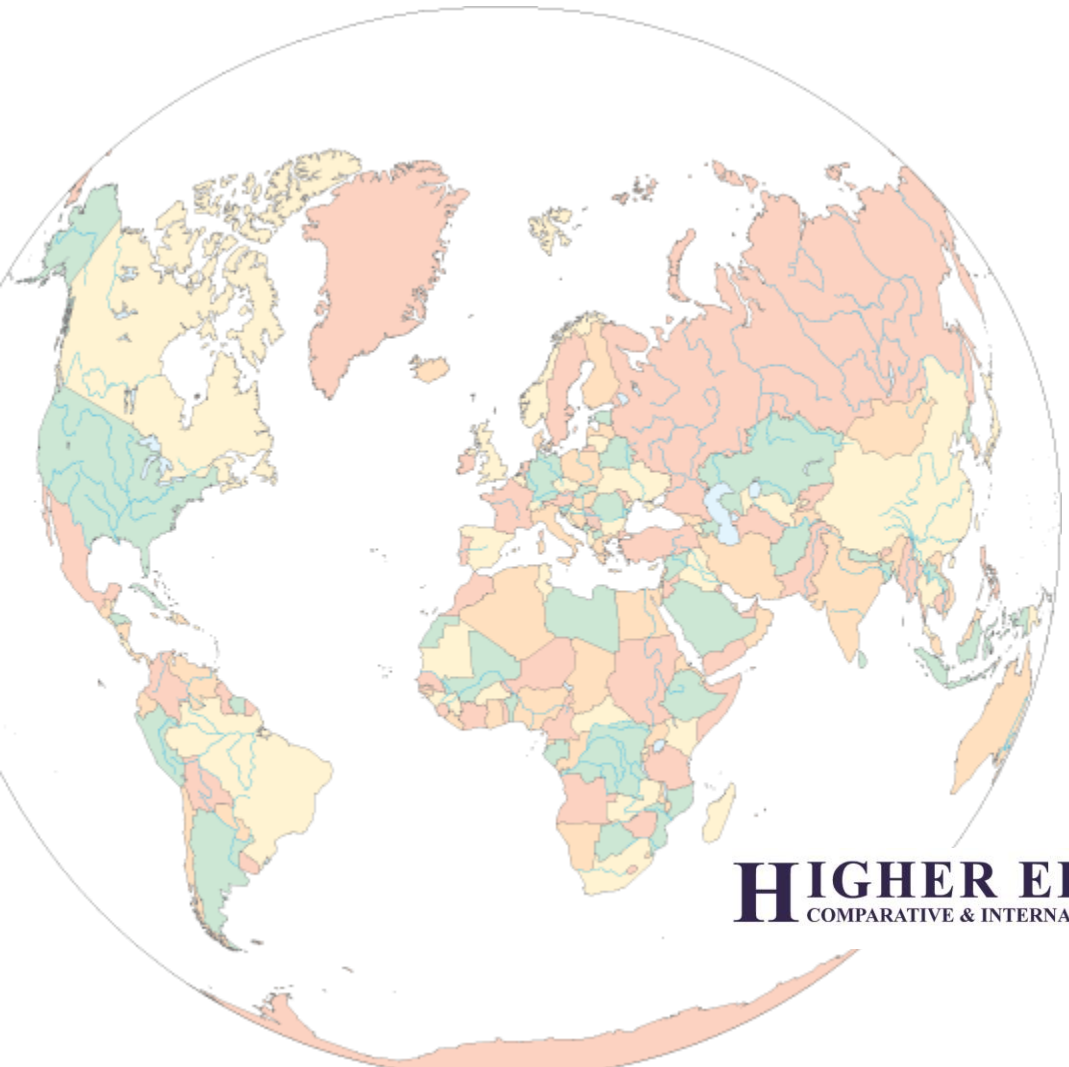

HIGHER EDUCATION SIG
COMPARATIVE & INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SOCIETY

COMPARATIVE & INTERNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Philosophy for *Comparative and Int'l Higher Education*

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Institutional Performance Commitments: An Example of Intra-Institutional Accountability in Chile

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Currently, multiple accountability procedures take place in Chile. I discuss in this article one of those procedures that relates to the University of Chile, the top public research university in the country. The accountability procedure refers to performance commitments established between academic units and the university's central administration. The article develops the concept of "performance commitments" (*compromisos de desempeño*) at the institutional level (Bernasconi 2011; Fernandez 2008) by defining the concept and outlining how the commitments are influenced by the institutional sector and national tradition. In the second part, I discuss relevant organizational, political, and economic conditions that demand accountability at the performance commitment level. Lastly, I conclude with a brief discussion about the factors encouraging and discouraging the adoption of accountability measures by the University of Chile and how (institutional) performance commitments are likely to lead towards better-established accountability mechanisms in the near future.

Universities and Accountability

Higher Education institutions are increasingly becoming more accountable to different stakeholders (Altbach 2000; Enders and Musselin 2008; McConnell 1971). However, as Daniel Levy (1986) and T. R. McConnell (1971) argue, institutions are subject of multiple types accountability. To whom is a university accountable? Universities are accountable to their faculty, administrators and trustees, students, the government, and the public (Amaral 2008; Gumport et al. 1997; McConnell 1971). In order to describe the accountability procedure, the next section refers to Enrique Fernandez's work (2008), who is one of the most systematic and comprehensive researchers on accountability at both the faculty and institutional levels. This article focuses only on the institutional level.

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Academic Units and Central Administration: The University of Chile

Academic units as subjects of accountability are one type of performance commitment instruments. The particular case of the University of Chile is described here. The University of Chile is the oldest, largest, and most prestigious university of the country. It is a public university that consists of 18 colleges, schools, and institutes. The University is an example of how academic units (e.g., departments, schools, and *facultades*[1]) are becoming accountable to the central administration. This accountability procedure is not extensively implemented, basically because it is still in progress. Nonetheless, it is still worthwhile to pay attention to the process because it marks a trend for accountability procedures of this type in Chile.

Intra-Institutional Accountability

Academic units are accountable to the central administration by means of reporting their activities, finances, and academic performance. This type of accountability could fit what Linda Johnsrud and Joanne Gisselquist (2002) have defined as internal/voluntary accountability. It is exerted at the intra-institutional level. Specifically, the University of Chile's department directors and deans (depending on the case) have to report to the central authorities about how resources are being used within their academic units. In addition, they have to prove that the methods

that their academic units are using to allocate resources are effective and efficient. Even though the University of Chile's academic units are currently held accountable to the central administration, they have historically enjoyed a good deal of autonomy. However, as its accreditation report shows (Provost, personal communication), the autonomy enjoyed by these academic units is the bottleneck of the central administration when trying to align schools and *facultades* with the institutional goals. According to Andrés Bernasconi (2011), the University of Chile's decentralization would lead to operate it as a confederation of *facultades*.

Notably, the accountability policy intends to align the leverage of resources of academic units with the University goals. Due to the current increasing reception of public funds, the University of Chile has become equally accountable to the government and to some state agencies. Thus, the University has started efforts to press the academic units toward achieving certain indicators that later on will be used to justify the use of resources to the national government. The management of faculty is a good example to illustrate this intended policy.

Design and Implementation

According to the University of Chile 2006-2010 strategic plan (quoted in Bernasconi 2011, p. 12), "the university stated as one of its main goals, to congregate the best faculty nationally; working accordingly to international standards."[2] Regarding the issue of faculty management, the University of Chile has embarked in a reform that aims to freeze any new part-time hiring and to increase the sharing of full-time professors with doctoral degrees. Currently, part-time faculty accounts for two-thirds of the entire faculty population at University of Chile. Furthermore, among full-time faculty, only 42 percent hold a doctoral degree (Bernasconi 2011).

In addition, concerning accountability of academic units, the heads of academic units have to justify how they manage the faculty. In other words, there is a need for accountability on how faculty is hired and what is carried out to maintain a balance between part-time and full-time professors. Because the goal of the Universidad of Chile is to carry out premier research, according to international standards, the University is trying to minimize the amount of part-time faculty members and to increase the proportion of full-time faculty whose primary focus is research. Thus, academic units are being compelled to justify why, if so, they need to hire new or to renew the contracts of part-time faculty. In other words, academic units are not autonomous to decide on faculty hiring any longer.

The institutional performance commitment is voluntary and does not necessarily involve any economic incentives. However, as the academic units are becoming more accountable by multiple means and measured through a variety of indicators, there is little leeway to bypass central control and monitoring. At the time of writing this article, I found some sort of resistance to the policy, especially among *facultades* with more part-time faculty. However, it is interesting that department chairs are also being held accountable for the decision-making regarding part-time faculty to other constituencies, such as the academic community represented by students and faculty members.

Factors Feeding the Need for Internal Accountability

Accreditation and the new institutional management are two important factors in creating the need for internal accountability processes. On one hand, Chile has a national higher education accreditation system. It is viewed as highly committed to the quality of higher education and has become a model throughout Latin America. Thus, to some extent, the accreditation process has led the university sector to be more accountable to various stakeholders. Universities are increasingly becoming more accountable in relation to their finance, management, and academic policy. On the other hand, since the Chilean higher education system operates in an exceedingly competitive market, institutional management is becoming more relevant to institutions willing to improve their performance, especially to those with scarce resources. Therefore, faculty management is also regarded as an important component for university administration.

Last but not least, another factor feeding the need for internal accountability is economics. The University of Chile is in great need for economic resources. Therefore, the University has engaged in more accountability processes to fulfill state requirements that will enable the institution to get more government funding.

Factors Encouraging and Discouraging the Adoption of New Accountability Measures

The long tradition of institutional autonomy enjoyed by the University of Chile can be considered as an element that may discourage the adoption of new accountability measures. However, since there are many complains about the excess of bureaucratic management as for daily academic operations (e.g., to reserve a classroom, to obtain the signature of authorities for less important paperwork), new managerial practices that can make the institution more expedite in making decisions, would be certainly welcomed by the academic community. In other words, better practices in management could become a significant factor to engage in more accountability processes, putting institutional and individual autonomy at stake.

Notes

1. *Facultades* are the largest academic unit of which the university is composed. It derives from the tradition inherited from the Continental model where Latin American universities found their origins (Bernasconi 2011).
2. As per Andrés Bernasconi's translation.

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Why not Help Africa? American Universities should make a Civic Commitment to Strengthening Higher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa

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Not long ago, the *New York Times* broke the scandal about New York University's (NYU) new Abu Dhabi campus, which had been launched with much fanfare by NYU President John Sexton. According to the *Times*, construction workers for the Abu Dhabi campus, most of whom were migrants, were required to pay high fees just to get their jobs and forced to endure substandard living conditions (Kaminer 2013, 2014).

NYU expressed regret for how the workers had been treated but suggested that it had no control over the contractor who hired the workers (Kaminer 2014). Later, it was discovered that the owner of the construction firm that built NYU's Abu Dhabi campus sits on NYU's board of trustees (Sorkin 2014).

This unseemly incident illustrates how several American universities involve themselves internationally. For the most part, American higher education institutions confine their foreign initiatives to two activities: establishing overseas branches at exotic locations like Abu Dhabi or Shanghai or sponsoring study abroad experiences for American students (Lewin 2008), which are often little more than European travel adventures for both students and professors to places like Madrid and Rome. I do not know how many students take out federal student loans to pay for their study abroad semesters, but I bet a lot of American students are funding their trips to the Great Wall with money they borrowed from Uncle Sam.

It is true, of course, that many American scholars make international contributions through such initiatives as the US State Department's Fulbright Scholars program. But how many American professors have presented papers at conferences in places like New Zealand, Hong Kong, or Britain just to take brief foreign vacations at their universities' expense?

American university leaders like to boast that our nation's universities are the envy of the world, but if that is true, does not that impose a civic obligation on our universities to help make the world a better place? And if so, why have not American colleges and universities made more of a contribution to strengthening higher education and building the economies in the world's developing countries—particularly Sub-Saharan Africa?

Right now, Sub-Saharan Africa is destabilizing (Anderson 2013). Boko Haram has captured school girls in Nigeria and burned children alive in a boarding-school dormitory (Adamu and Faul 2013). Kenya has suffered several recent terrorist attacks by Islamic extremists including an attack on a shopping mall in Nairobi. Uganda and Tanzania have been relatively free of terrorism in recent years, but a Catholic church was bombed in the Tanzanian town of Arusha in 2013 and people I talked with in Uganda think it is only a matter of time before Uganda experiences the same kind of terrorism that Kenya has begun to suffer (Anderson 2013).

East African universities are making a heroic effort to expand higher education opportunities for East Africa's young people. In particular, East African universities affiliated with religious denominations are growing and offering new programs designed to lead to good jobs for their graduates and to build stronger national economies. But they are severely under-resourced. They lack experienced faculty members, technology infrastructures, and adequate physical facilities. Often they also lack higher-education management expertise (Sulaiman 2013).

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Meanwhile, American universities have a surplus of capacity. We have too many laws and MBA programs and too many colleges of education for the current demand. Why do not American universities offer some of their programs, skills and expertise to aid African higher education?

If American universities would make a selfless contribution to strengthening higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa, they would help strengthen the economies of the countries in that region, as well as to raise education levels of the young people of Sub-Saharan Africa. They would be helping to bring prosperity to a region wracked by poverty and crippled by centuries of colonial exploitation and to foster the values on which Western higher education is founded—values dedicated to the search for truth and justice and equality among all the peoples of mankind. By strengthening higher education in Africa, American universities would help to stabilize a region that is rapidly destabilizing. They would be directly refuting the philosophy of nihilistic terrorism that has begun to infect Sub-Saharan Africa.

But perhaps helping Africa is too difficult for American universities. Instead, it is far easier to engage in self-indulgent study abroad programs and egotistical campuses in places like Abu Dhabi, and far more comfortable, and therefore: safer.

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Integrating Service Learning into a First-Year Experience Course: A Few Considerations

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In this essay I explore important considerations for integrating service learning in a three-credit hour semester-based, First Year Experience (FYE) course at a large American University with over 30,000 students enrolled on a four-year commuter-campus. I assessed classes that are civic-minded and engage students in larger comparative discussions of relevant issues and opportunities in the community; so including service learning into two of my FYE courses appeared to be appropriate (Mayhew and Engberg 2011; Tukibayeva and Gonyea 2014; Whiteford and Strom 2013). My experience as a second-year faculty member, teaching service learning to two FYE sections (about 20 students per class) for the first time, turned out to be challenging. When considering whether to do this on campus, I noted that, on average, only one out of 30 FYE sections was service-learning designed.[1] Therefore its application was experimental. My classes were comprised of students coming from a variety of academic majors: three-fourths were first-time students, with the other fourth divided up between struggling students (i.e., going through academic probation) and advanced-undergraduates seeking service opportunities.

This essay will primarily relate to the largest contingency of my FYE courses, first-time students. For many first semester students, adjusting to life at a university is a challenging experience that comes with inherent hurdles. Students are frequently adapting to new housing conditions, roommate relationships, and the new "adult" role, complicated for some students still living at home. Financial challenges, love interests, poor sleep habits, and fixations with internet streaming technologies can all create time management difficulties that impact the quantity and quality of student work. Given the aforementioned and other challenges facing first-year students, one questions whether or not it is beneficial to integrate service learning into an FYE course.

Nevertheless, in my review of recent service learning literature, the value of service learning was highlighted for students and professors alike. Trudy Bers and Donna Younger (2014) stated that, when considering retention, compared to other FYE high impact practices, common reading programs and mentoring: "service learning has yielded the most research examining its impact on student success" (p. 85). On the campus I am part of, I have heard many stories from my colleagues on the value of service learning, though these have come from faculty who teach different disciplines at more advanced undergraduate levels. Professors and students' stories embracing the opportunity to extend their efforts beyond the traditional classroom into K-12 local schools or academies, and whose focus relates—but it is not limited to—the following areas: campus-based volunteer and service-learning centers, local businesses, or alternative academic settings such as juvenile detention centers, are common. I have learned through interactions with colleagues and a related study of the recent literature that a student learns about herself in the process of service learning and ideally fulfills an identified need for a specific community partner or for the community at large. Despite all, the concern that arises is whether or not service learning should be promoted among first-year students.

This is a serious concern for the professor who may not be sufficiently aware of sufficient service learning opportunities in the community. Nonetheless, engaging students in service learning at an early stage of their undergraduate experience appeared to be an extremely

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valuable and precedent setting endeavor. This can lead the student off to a great start and potentially give practical and relevant meaning to their academic studies through their service experience, which could be informed to/influence their college and career paths.

Site supervisors themselves, as community partners, often serve as intermediaries, coordinating student schedules with site recipients and teaching students important valuable skills and lessons. For example, in service-learning in K-12 schools, a site supervisor may interview the student to identify strengths and weaknesses and struggle to simultaneously help the student meet the expectations laid out by the professor, as well as his/her parents who may be leaving their children after school to receive extended tutoring from a college student. In this context, how do the site supervisor and professor address the student who does not show up for his/her scheduled tutoring assignment? For the new academically-struggling student, taking the initiative to seek-out for help or to fulfill service-learning responsibilities, may be extremely intimidating. Instead of just attending to class regularly and passively sitting and listening to what a professor may deliver; students are expected to teach and to be taught in a new, perhaps, more self-directed context. This can cause a new level of stress for students, particularly to those who are used to being closely directed in school settings.

My recent experiment with integrating service learning in two non-major specific FYEs leads me to conclude a few different deliberations. In an attempt to describe and promote a symbiotic relationship among the student, site supervisor, and professor, I give a brief list of five considerations below.

1. **Meaningful service-learning assignments for students:** When possible, identify or change service-learning assignments to meet the students' needs. I learned that if students are not invested in service-learning assignments, they will resent the experience and may feel like they are wasting their time. Consequently, some students may perform at a subpar level, causing the rest to wish that the service learning assignment would end sooner.

2. **Be willing to take risks (but follow through):** Professors need to be creative in identifying service learning projects, but also extending trust to students, allowing them some autonomy in developing their own projects. When I debated whether to have my course designated as a 20-hour service learning course, I was relieved to learn that a campus office, specializing in K-12 math and literacy tutoring would facilitate background checks and serve as the liaison between students and school service sites. Over the course of the semester the campus office did an outstanding job serving my students; however, there were still a handful of students in each of my classes who were not able to go to school because of their own unusual work and school schedules. In this situation, the professor should be prepared to challenge students to come up with a suitable alternative to the generally assigned service assignment. However, students may try to steer more toward volunteer work rather than service learning. Where ought the professor to draw the line between service learning and volunteerism? This is serving behind the scenes at a food bank, for excellent volunteer opportunity. Further, the professor might ask whether face-to-face service-learning opportunities are the best way to do service learning. My current bias is toward the face-to-face option, though I am open to discussing meaningful online options with students.

3. **Early and regular discussions with students.** I found, similar to others carrying out service-learning related projects (see Butler and Christofili 2014; Maddrell 2014), that asking students to divide up their service-learning hours over the course of many weeks (e.g., four weeks), allowed time for better reflections and a useful opportunity to assess students' progress (Smith et al. 2011). Also, interviewing each student early on, about their particular service learning opportunity, helped avoid potential miscommunication issues on the expectations of their assignments.

4. **Promote responsibility:** I have learned that the professor should explicitly teach students how to be responsible. Discussing basic responsibility ethics—basic attendance and follow through skills—are crucial for ensuring that students do what is expected. For example, spelling out some scenarios to students or brief case studies in advance is extremely helpful for the whole academic environment. If a student needs to call in sick, what will happen to the stakeholders (e.g., K-12 students, teachers, and site-supervisor), at the service-learning site? How much advance notice will the site need, and how exactly should they be contacted? How should site supervisors and professors address students who did not come to school because of car issues, birthday celebrations, or just did not feel like going? What if the student is extremely bored at a service-learning site? How will the student take responsibility for his or her own teaching, tutoring, and learning?

5. **Be open to the unexpected:** Professors and site supervisors may be surprised about the take-away messages students acquire from their service learning assignments. Be open to unique types of learning that can take place. While one student may see reading to kids as babysitting, another student may see it as an opportunity to help a child developing an essential skill. By regularly sharing students' thoughts about their service-learning sites in class, the latter can use that feedback to improve its impact on students. I noticed these class discussions tended to help students feel more integrated both in class and at their service-learning site. Also, I learned that involving a peer mentor, a student who has previously taken the class and carried out service learning work in one of their other classes, is an extremely valuable element for helping students thrive in setting up and carrying out their own service learning work (Wooten et al. 2012). By the end of the semester, students (with the exception of one or two in each class) reflected on their service-learning participation and reported it as a valuable growing and learning experience.

Conclusions

Despite any undesirable considerations, integrating service learning in a First Year Experience appears to be a meaningful challenge to professors, students, and service site supervisors. It appeared that teamwork and course relevancy played a large part in helping students succeed in their service learning environments. Early reflections and discussion activities helped students become more engaged in their experiences and allowed them to learn from each other. Creativity in assigning and adjusting student projects was important to student success, as well as stating clear expectations of student responsibilities. Overall, it appeared that my service-learning FYE sections yielded a more civically engaged experience for first-time students, than my stand-alone sections.

Notes

1. The section that was designed as a service-learning course was taught by another professor and was run as a Learning Community Center, paired thematically with another course. Official service-learning designed courses at my institution require students to complete 20 service-learning hours each semester.

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University over Borders: A Comparison of Internationalization Models in Poland and Germany

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Higher education has always been internationalized to a greater level than other spheres of social life, as it is based on intellectual exchange, an immanent characteristic of which is crossing borders, including national ones. Internationalization of higher education in its current form is, however, a new phenomenon. It is an answer to the changes occurring in the higher education environment and related to the ongoing globalization (Marginson and Van der Wende 2007).

Educational institutions adapt to the new situation with speed and depth—unseen before—they open up to foreign students and academics, and they add foreign language programs to their curriculum. In addition, they conform to the international quality standards, and inspire one another to introduce new organizational and scientific solutions (Siwińska 2007). Thanks to this, the higher education system becomes compatible with the world economy, and is able to prepare its graduates for the needs of a global job market. This also creates favorable conditions for the development of science, as aggregation of the intellectual, and creative and innovative potential takes place in a competitive international environment. Internationalization of higher education is one of the key catalysts of this process (Enders and Fulton 2002).

The higher education internationalization process started in the late 1970s with mass migrations of students from Asian countries across borders. The United Kingdom, Australia, and the United States quickly became world internationalization leaders, largely, due to widespread use of English. In continental Europe, the process appeared a little later. After 1989, internationalization-related activities started also in Central and Eastern European countries (Kälvermak and Van der Wende 1997).

The goal of my research (the results of which were published in 2014 with the book: *University over Borders. Internationalization of Higher Education in Poland and in Germany*) was to compare higher education internationalization in Poland and Germany, especially, in the first decade of the new century. The most important questions included the characteristics of the Polish and German models, as well as the applied variants of higher education internationalization, the origins of the differences in the development of this process in both countries, as well as the relationship between the federal/unitary model of state and the development of the internationalization process. I was therefore interested in the ways the higher education systems in Poland and Germany (on various levels) answer to environmental changes related to progressing globalization and to the favorable conditions needed for an effective development of the internationalization process.

In relation to the developmental process of internationalization of the polish higher education system, it appeared to reach a crossroads. First, the model transferred mimetically from the Anglo-Saxon world which is almost exhausted, in spite of the lack of clear vision of a particular strategy adapted to specifically Polish conditions and needs. Second, politics in the area of science and higher education to date have been characterized by a lack of strategic thinking. The response to the question about the most effective development path is vital due to the role that internationalization of higher education will necessarily play in the creation of a positive future for Poland as a modern state, based on an open society and knowledge economy.

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The analysis confirmed that one of the key developmental aspects of the internationalization process is the involvement of the key decision centers at the central or state level in its creation. In Germany, where activity and reflection on this level has been present almost from the beginning of the period, internationalization of the system is developing dynamically, the culture of internationalization is evident, and the process itself takes on more and more sophisticated forms (Huisman and Van der Wende 2004). Apart from the initial phase, I have distinguished three phases of this process: quantitative, qualitative, and the so-called "sublimation phase" (Hanh 2004, Kehm and de Wit 2005).The first phase was based on accumulating the internationalization potential, the second on the gradual introduction of pro-quality solutions, while the latter was characterized by the appearance of a synergetic group of conditions necessary for a qualitative leap in the internationalization process itself. These include: high awareness of the issues related to this area in a large interest group, the will to support the internationalization process by individuals and institutions responsible for shaping the higher education policy on various levels (with special emphasis on the top level) and stability of such a policy developed consistently over time, confirmed by dedicated budget resources allocated generously to pro-internationalization initiatives (Siwińska 2007). The emphasis and prioritization of the issues related to the internationalization process development was the most influential aspect for the third phase (Huisman and Van der Wende 2004).

Internationalization of Polish higher education was not concurrent to the process taking place in Germany. Only the quantitative phase developed there in the analogical period, and it still has not reached full saturation. It has been characterized by an increase in the internationalization potential, and especially by a quick increase in the number of foreign students in Polish universities. There has also been an increase in the number of study programs conducted in foreign languages (with a definite domination of English) as well as in activity on the level of a small group of universities which may be described as innovators in the diffusion of innovations, with a consequent lack of strategic reflection at the state level. The centralization level of a state (federal versus unitary) proved to be an important factor affecting the development of the internationalization process. Centralization supported internationalization. The bigger central involvement and the higher central coordination, the greater the process dynamic turned out to be. Paradoxically, in the federal Germany, the higher education internationalization process was run in a more centralized way than in the unitary Poland. The dominant rationale for internationalization of the Polish universities in the period under consideration was economic in nature, defined in a short-term perspective. The discourse was dominated by a debate on direct financial profits resulting from the presence of foreign students, while other benefits were pushed to the background. In other words, the practice of and reflection on internationalization was dominated by a market approach. In the conceptualization developed in my study, the domination of short-term economic rationale observed in Poland is characteristic for an early, non-advanced phase of internationalization, with low awareness of benefits of internationalization other than financial ones. The internationalization changes in Poland were characterized by an effective bottom-up approach, in which higher education institutions and various bodies representing their interests initiated and inspired such changes. Apart from activities related to the Bologna Process implementation and creation of the European Higher Education Area, inspired by the joint European policy, main impulses for internationalization were generated either by universities themselves, by institutions representing academic circles, or buffer institutions acting as intermediaries between the universities and the government. In the relevant period, the state educational authorities remained passive in the area of creating an internationalization culture. However, a process of accumulation of a critical mass of awareness and will, necessary for any future changes, could be observed. I have noticed portents of such changes in the most recent years 2011-2013. In the German model of higher education internationalization, an important role was played by the academic rationale as well as the political rationale and the long-term economic one (Huisman and Van der Wende 2004). I have

observed every one of them on a highly advanced level. It was more difficult to observe the influence of the cultural rationale, but curiously, it turned out to be the most significant. The economic rationale in the short-term perspective turned out to be the least important, which was the main difference between this model and the Polish one (Siwińska 2010). Significant weight of the financial rationale in the long-term perspective, as well as the political one, emphasized strategic thinking in this area at the state level and at the intermediary levels (Kehm and de Wit 2005).The role of the academic rationale reflected the highly advanced level of discourse and the developed awareness of the stakeholders in this matter. This model reflected the causative structure of the internationalization process in Germany. It was characterized by a top-down approach—with a leading, active role played by the decisive central bodies (Hanh 2004). This coordination ran along two paths: on the level of a land government and that of the federal government. The main impulses for internationalization were generated by the central government or the institutions acting as intermediaries between it and the universities, with a leading role of the largely independent, inter-ministerial agency German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD, as per its acronym in German).

Divergences in the course of higher education internationalization processes in Poland and Germany were also caused by their different cultural and historical conditioning in the relevant period. One of the causes of disturbances in the development of a more mature internationalization process in Poland could have been the effects of institutional behavior motivated by the logic of mimetic isomorphism. Direct transfer of Anglo-Saxon solutions into different Polish conditions was harmful (Ernst & Young and Institute for Market Economics 2010).

On the other hand, systemic support of higher education internationalization in Poland, using solutions inspired by German experiences and adapted to Polish conditions—not by imitation but by creative adaptation—appeared both possible and promising. Therefore, I concluded my research by proposing a set of practical recommendations concerning the creation of an internationalization culture in Poland (see more at: http://www.uniwersytetponadgranicami.pl). The internationalization process itself appears to be a certain historical necessity, determined by objective changes taking place in the environment surrounding higher education systems. It can, however, appear in two completely different forms: it may be consciously administered by institutions involved at various levels, sharing a more or less common vision of benefits, which should result from it (as in the German case Hanh 2004), or with certain neglect and lack of awareness of key stakeholders. It can also take place somewhere on the margins of the system, in a non-systematized way, and its forms, lacking a common vision and a limited scope of public's interest, which may evolve in an undesirable direction (as happened in Poland). The latter direction identified in this study consists in the tendency to formulate goals in relation to short-term financial benefits resulting from presence of foreign students. For the purpose of this study I have defined the more spontaneous form of internationalization occurring in Poland as "wild internationalization," which is characterized by a chaotic pace and lack of central or regional policy. Wild internationalization is made possible by a neglecting strategy in the area of public policy.

A question remains about the direction in which the higher education internationalization process of the Polish higher education may develop in the future (Ernst & Young and Institute for Market Economics 2010; Polish Conference of Academic Schools Rectors 2009). It seems that in the case of Polish higher education at least two development scenarios are possible. In the first scenario, the accumulation of political critical mass might prompt the decisive central level to finally get involved in internationalization of the Polish system. If this occurred, changes would be made in order to improve the dynamism of the whole process, so as to profile it to suit the needs required to reach academic quality. A strategy for the development of higher education in Poland would need to emphasize the role of internationalization in a clear way, and to define specific strategic goals in this area. The quality threshold of educational institutions actively operating in the field of internationalization—necessary to set off mass diffusion—would then be reached, and progress in this area

would start snowballing. At the same time, appropriate know-how would need to be transferred from the external environment. In further perspective, a dynamic, quality-focused internationalization of the Polish higher education would contribute to Poland's strong position in the worldwide academic exchange, to making its offer more attractive in the eyes of potential foreign students and researchers, and also to creation of an innovation culture, based on creatively adapted inspirations from all over the world. In this scenario, Polish society is not a subject of brain drain but a partner in creation of a brain circulation culture.

A second scenario is based on the assumption that the Polish higher education would continue on its course of wild internationalization, assuming a neglecting policy on all decision-making levels. It would involve further procrastination from the central bodies in committing structures and resources in strategic support of the internationalization process in a pro-quality direction. If the system continues as at present, cooperation with social partners and non-governmental organizations would remain weak or non-existent. This scenario would, in a long-term perspective, most probably lead to persistent systemic hurdles in preparing graduates for the needs of the global job market. It would also contribute to a growing marginalization of Polish higher education in the world environment. A lack of strategic internationalization policy is likely to cause an increase in the negative consequences of brain drain (of gifted students, PhD students, and scientists) by more attractive and better internationalized systems, a permanent shortage of brilliant scholars coming to Poland from other countries, and a lack of participation in the desirable and intellectually fruitful brain circulation in culture. In the effect, this scenario would likely lead to worsening quality of Poland's "intellectual capital" and the gradual erosion of possibilities to create a knowledge-based society and economy . It would also hamper appropriate participation in the changes on the European level—including the creation of the European Higher Education Area and the European Research Area. Using Alvin Toffler's notion of "velvet colonization," Poland is likely to serve as a colony providing labor force or simple technologies for the real centers of progress and innovation concentrating European and world intellectual capital—located elsewhere.

Apart from the aforementioned extreme scenarios, there are many intermediate roads available. However, as the experts alert—in view of a civilizational backwardness, of which the limited higher education internationalization system is a part–, changes must take the form of sudden leaps, they must be radical because "radical" describes the speed of changes in this area throughout the world (Marginson and Van der Wende 2007).

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