



**Universidade de
Aveiro
2008**

Secção Autónoma de Ciências Sociais,
Jurídicas e Políticas

JORUNN HOPE

**O PROCESSO DE BOLONHA E A MOBILIDADE
ESTUDANTIL NA NORUEGA E EM PORTUGAL**



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**THE BOLOGNA PROCESS AND STUDENT MOBILITY
IN NORWAY AND PORTUGAL**

Thesis presented to the University of Aveiro to fulfil the formalities essential to obtain the degree of European Master in Higher Education (Erasmus Mundus), done under the scientific supervision of Dr. Alberto Manuel Sampaio Castro Amaral, Director of CIPES, Professor Catedrático of the University of Porto

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Aveiro, Portugal, May 2008

Palavras-chave

Ensino Superior; Processo de Bolonha; Mobilidade Estudantil; Internacionalização

Resumo

Esta tese analisa o processo de Bolonha na Noruega e em Portugal no que diz respeito à mobilidade de estudantes e à sua internacionalização. A tese consiste numa primeira parte teórica na qual se analisam os países em questão, o contexto do Processo de Bolonha e as abordagens teóricas. Na segunda parte são apresentadas entrevistas realizadas na Noruega e em Portugal, seguidas da sua interpretação e análise.

A pesquisa efectuada demonstra as principais diferenças entre o sistema norueguês, que implementou o acordo de Bolonha em 2003, e o sistema Português que o implementou em 2007. A pesquisa estuda, também, os passados destes dois países e como esses passados podem ter influenciado a mobilidade dos seus estudantes nos dias de hoje.

A pesquisa permitiu, também, analisar a influência da implementação do Processo de Bolonha na mobilidade dos estudantes e os possíveis obstáculos impostos pelo uso de graus mais curtos e pelo número mais reduzido de disciplinas opcionais nos novos cursos.

Há algumas indicações de diferenças entre faculdades nos dois países que são dos mesmos tipos em ambas as instituições investigadas. Existem, também, alguns problemas semelhantes nas instituições estudadas. É também evidente que o sistema norueguês já está estabilizado nos anos que decorreram desde a sua implementação. Pelo contrário em Portugal, onde a sua implementação é mais recente, há ainda alguns problemas por resolver e algumas incertezas relacionadas com a nova estrutura do sistema, embora seja justo reconhecer que isto corresponderá, possivelmente, a uma fase de transição.

Keywords

Higher education; The Bologna Process; Student mobility; Internationalisation

Abstract

This thesis analyses the Bologna Process in Norway and Portugal with regard to student mobility and internationalisation. It consists of one theoretical part looking into the countries in question, the background of the Bologna agreement and theoretical approaches, and one part of interviews conducted in Norway and Portugal and its interpretation and analysis.

The research done shows the main differences between the Norwegian system that implemented the Bologna agreement in 2003 and the Portuguese system that implemented it in 2007. It also looks into the different backgrounds of these countries, and how this may have been a part of forming student mobility today.

The research has also allowed to analyse the influence of the implementation of the Bologna process on student mobility and possible difficulties resulting from the use shorter degrees and a lower number of electives in the new programmes.

There are some indications of differences between faculties in both countries, which are the same in both institutions researched. There are also some similar same problems in both institutions. It is also apparent that the Norwegian system has already settled a bit in these years since implementation. On the contrary in Portugal where the implementation is far more recent there are still unsolved issues and uncertainties with the new structure, although it seems fair to say that this will probably be a passing stage.

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Introduction

This thesis examines the implementation of the Bologna agreement in Norway and Portugal. There will be a description of the Bologna agreement, its history and background. Following this, the outlines of Norwegian and Portuguese tertiary education will be given. The last part will contain an analysis of interviews given by staff members at one large university in each country.

The goal is to see how the Bologna agreement has been implemented in two countries in Europe, and to see what has been emphasised as important in the implementation, and how this has affected student mobility. It is also interesting to see how two institutions that seemingly have some common features have considered the changes this implementation has led to, and what impact this had on the institutions. As the Bologna agreement is a topic of discussion in Portugal today, it is interesting to compare it to a country like Norway, where this process was implemented in 2003. It is also interesting to see if the views are consistent within each institution, or if there are internal differences.

The Bologna agreement was intended to make European tertiary education more comparable and transparent to enhance mobility and employability amongst other objectives, but has this happened? When the different countries made their changes and defined their priorities, did they all have the flow of internationalisation in their mind, or did they look into their own countries and see what they needed to change? And how did different countries approach internationalisation? Bologna is a word that all Portuguese who have anything to do with tertiary education seems to know, in opposition to Norwegians, what does this say about the way these countries have approached the implementation process?

This thesis will not necessarily come to a conclusion with regard to all these areas, but hopefully will do it with some of them. And the others are interesting to keep in mind for further research, or to keep the mind intrigued.

Methodology

It is true that the topic of student mobility following the implementation of the Bologna agreement has been frequently tied to quantitative research, at least when the research objective is to show changes in the entire country, or in several or in even only one institution.

However, in the case of this thesis, the fact that the available time is very short and there is lack of financial support for collecting a significant amount of quantitative data, for instance by using questionnaires, makes advisable that a qualitative methodology should be used.

...qualitative research is more usually regarded as denoting an approach in which theory and categorization emerge out of the collection and analysis of data. The more general point being made is that such a difference within qualitative research may account for the unease about depicting the research strategy in terms of a set of stages. (Bryman, 2004: 268).

Talking against doing a quantitative research is the time at hand; less than four months is a short time to have something quantitative and meaningful being performed and interpreted. The quantitative methodology is also usually fairly costly, and it will not be possible for me, as a self-financing student, to do this without an institution paying for the costs. Usually there will also be problems making the already over-worked staff at the different institutions take the extra time to answer a questionnaire distributed by a student without the necessary support from management. This would lead to a decrease in the validity of my research, and therefore making the research not usable for this thesis. These are the main reasons why using quantitative research did not seem to be advisable under the present circumstances. Using a quantitative methodology might have been possible if my research was made in collaboration with for instance a PhD student or a professor who are doing a similar research, but this possibility did not occur.

There has been quantitative research already done in this area of student mobility, and some of this research indicates that there has been a decrease in student mobility in Norway. The follow-up question will naturally be why, and this may be more effectively answered using a qualitative methodology. Then again, some of these

changes can, as already mentioned, be due to practical issues, like the changes in the Norwegian student loan system and the shortened time to finish an undergraduate degree. It could naturally be interesting to look into what the students themselves would say of this, but that will not be suitable for this thesis, again due to time and financial constraints. The situation in Portugal is less obvious at the time being, as the implementation of Bologna is very recent or is still in progress, and the data may be harder to interpret.

This is why I decided to use a qualitative methodology, partly based on the use of secondary sources. If student mobility amongst Norwegian students has actually decreased with the Bologna process, it creates a very interesting field of further research, and it is important to find out why this has changed in the way it has. The effects of the implementation of the Bologna agreement should be possible to observe by now, and most likely there will be official sources that can cast a light on this field. The use of secondary sources will be combined with a number of semi-structured interviews with administrative personnel in charge of internationalisation and the Bologna process in two universities, one in Norway and the other in Portugal. To sum it up there will be different methodological techniques used throughout the thesis, and these will be based primarily upon my experience and the time frame at hand.

The main steps in qualitative research are as follows:

- 1) general research questions;
- 2) selecting relevant site(s) and subjects;
- 3) collection of relevant data;
- 4) interpretation of data;
- 5) conceptual and theoretical work;
- 6) write up finding/ conclusions (*ibid*: 269).

The following part of this chapter will go through the methodology that will be used in this paper according to these steps.

Research problem:

Increased internationalisation is one of the ideals behind the Bologna agreement. I would like to look into the following:

- Has the Bologna agreement made student mobility easier?
 - Is there any difference in mobility students and Bologna students?
 - Has this changed for students here for full programmes?
- Has the Bologna agreement made student mobility more difficult?
 - What difficulties have been encountered this far?
 - Are the difficulties the same for students coming to Portugal and for students going from Portugal?
 - Are the difficulties the same for students within Europe and for international students outside Europe?
- Have the universities' international offices changed after Bologna?
 - Has the structure of the international office changed?
 - Has the organisation of the international office changed?
 - Has the funding changed?
 - Diploma supplement? Has this had any meaning with regard to the mobility of students?
- The programmes are shorter in many countries than they were prior to Bologna, has this lead to difficulties with exchange as you see it?
 - Are the programmes equal enough to enable students to do a semester abroad?

Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies could be used to answer these questions. Interviews with staff members at some institutions with international students will be performed at the Universidade do Porto (UP) and the University of Oslo (UiO). These interviews could be made using any of the known techniques, but for this situation and the time limit for the thesis I have chosen to use semi-structured conversational interviews, where I have some questions that all interviewees will be asked, but where I also will be free to ask additional questions if interesting aspects occur during the conversations. The interviewees will all be chosen from among members of the administration. There will be representatives from the international offices, both at the central and the faculty levels, and the main administration will be represented as well. This also implies that I had to go to Oslo for a period to do the interviews there. One important issue has been finding equal candidates working approximately within the same area, for interviews in both countries.

It will also be of importance to keep in mind those other recent reforms that were implemented in Norwegian and Portuguese higher education at the same time as the implementation of the Bologna process. There was also a big change in the financing on both institutional level and personal level to the students in Norway. A

comprehensive reform of the higher education system is also taking place in Portugal. These changes combined with a shorter time allocated for each subject may lead to the students not choosing to go abroad, and will be an aspect to look into. The challenge here will be to not lead the interview objects into taking a stand in this question, but at the same time finding out if interviewees refer to the seemingly decrease of Norwegian exchange students, both from within the Bologna agreement and outside, at both undergraduate and graduate level.

It is also important to be aware of what the statistics show, and to not extract excessive interpretations out of them, and to remember that other factors than just Bologna might be playing an important role in these changes, as already mentioned.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Guba and Lincoln (1994) propose that it is necessary to specify terms and ways of establishing and assessing the quality of qualitative research that provide an alternative to reliability and validity. They propose two primary criteria for assessing a qualitative study: *trustworthiness* and *authenticity*. (*ibid*: 273)

and

When participant observation is used of when unstructured interviews are conducted with a small number of individuals in a certain organization of locality, they argue that it is impossible to know how the findings can be generalized to other settings. How can just one or two cases be representative of all cases? (*ibid*: 284- 285)

The challenge here will be to the validity of a conclusion based upon 10 interviews at 2 institutions in two different countries. It will be important to keep the amount of interviews in mind at all time during the analysis, and not to make too wide conclusions based upon these few participants.

Williams (2000) has argued that in many cases, qualitative researchers are in a position to produce what he calls *moderatum* generalizations (...) *Moderatum* generalizations will always be limited and somewhat more tentative than those associated with statistical generalization of the kind associated with probability sampling (...) On the other hand, they do permit a modicum of generalization and help to counter the view that generalization beyond the immediate evidence and the case is impossible in qualitative research. (*ibid*: 285)

It may also prove challenging to fit the results from the interviews with the national research used in the background chapter from each country. In that case the number of subjects, the size of the institutions, etc. may be important to remember, since both chosen institutions are big and established, and may have a different approach to internationalisation than other institutions in the respective countries, and therefore

have different experiences with internationalisation than shown on national research. This is why I am using a theoretical framework that will allow us to characterise both the Portuguese and Norwegian systems and the two universities (Porto and Oslo) thus determining whether these institutions have similar or different approaches to internationalisation.

Table 1 Universities in the sample

	Universidade do Porto	University of Oslo
Geographical location	Large city	Large city (capital)
Type of institution	Public, university	Public, university
Enrolments	Near 28 000	Near 30 000
Number of schools	15 faculties	8 faculties
Number of degree study programmes	34 1 st cycle programmes, 18 integrated masters, 136 2 nd cycle programmes, 46 PhD s	Around 135 different degree programmes, with several possible subject combinations
Number of incoming mobility students ¹	921	624
Number of outgoing mobility students	716	572
Number of foreign students ²	992	1102 ³

Source: (UP and UiO webpages)

It is also true that these processes are quite complex and their implementation and consequences may be the result of a large number of different factors whose effects can prove difficult to isolate and interpret. Critical questions are for instance the reduction of the length of undergraduate programmes in both Portugal and Norway from four to three years. Another aspect is that the Bologna process has been implemented in Norway for several years now, while it is more recent in Portugal, which means that there are probably more effects visible there than in Portugal. Then again, some of these visible changes may come from the change in the financing rules of tertiary education, and not necessarily from the Bologna process itself. This will be a challenge for me to distinguish, and to keep in mind at all times.

¹ International students participating in exchange programmes, for a period over 3 months

² Foreign students attending a full degree

³ All international students at all levels

Theory

In this thesis I propose to analyse how far the implementation of the Bologna process is contributing to increased student mobility and to internationalisation. There are several relevant theoretical approaches to discuss the internationalisation of higher education. The theories addressed here will be the ones used in this thesis. However, before I start presenting the theoretical approaches used in this thesis it is useful for the sake of clarity to define internationalisation and related concepts.

Definitions

The terms internationalisation, globalisation and europeanisation are important to define for the rest of this discussion. These terms all have several different definitions, and it can be challenging to find the most adequate to this particular paper.

- “Internationalisation” assumes that nation states continue to play a role as economic, social and cultural systems but that they are becoming more interconnected and activities crossing their borders are increasing. Cooperation between nation states is expanding and national policies are placing a stronger emphasis on regulating or facilitating border-crossing activities.
- “Globalisation” emphasises an increasing convergence and interdependence of economies and societies. In contrast to internationalisation, a de-nationalisation and integration of regulatory systems as well as a blurring role of nation states are taken for granted. The liberalisation of international trade and global markets are often viewed as the strongest move in this direction.
- “Europeanization” is often employed for describing the phenomena of internationalisation on a “regional” scale. Cooperation between EU countries and economic, social and cultural activities crossing their national borders are expanding quickly based on the notion that such cooperation is required for stability and economic growth within the region. This regional cooperation is also intended to enhance the global competitiveness of the European region as a whole. (Luijten-Lub, Huisman and van der Wende 2005: 12)

This definition is somewhat compatible with Welch’s definition, though he uses fewer words, and may be seen as a bit harsher. Still, Welch proposes the idea of internationalisation as being a part of the nation state’s more or less natural cooperation traditions, and globalisation as being a more market friendly mechanism and based on competition.

His ‘globalisation’ is a pro-capitalist ideology supporting the extension of worldwide markets; while educational ‘internationalization’ is about cultural exchange and cooperative relationships based on equality of respect. (Welch 2002, in Marginson 2006: 2)

Knight comes off as less harsh in her definitions, and Marginson supports her propositions. She seems to agree with the idea of internationalisation as a nation state/ individual institution participation, while globalisation seems again to be based upon markets and economy.

Knight (2004, p. 11) takes a more modest normative approach, defining 'internationalization' as 'the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education', in the national system or in individual institutions. Knight also sees the distinction as geo-spatial. Her 'international' refers to relations between nations while 'global' is at the world level. 'Globalization' is 'the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values [and] ideas ... across borders'. Unlike Welch, Knight does not see 'globalization' as being opposed to internationalization' in zero-sum terms, but as part of the environment in which internationalization takes place and one reason why the international dimension of higher education is becoming more important. (Knight 2004: 11 in Marginson 2006: 2)

Marginson also characterises internationalisation and globalisation in geo-spatial terms and dynamics, as two different dimensions of 'cross-border human action'. He also seems to see a dominant influence of the nation state in the dimension of internationalisation but a dominant influence of the global relations over the nation-state in globalisation, as the two following quotations will show.

[...] 'internationalization' and 'globalization' refer to *two different dimensions of cross-border human action*, dimensions that have differing geo-spatial dynamics, and differing implications for transformation.

- 'Internationalization' means the thickening of relationships conducted between nations ('inter-national' relations), where national institutions and practices are affected at the margins but essentially remain intact.
- 'Globalization' means the enhancement of the worldwide or pan-European spheres of action. It has potentially transformative effects within nations, as well as remarking the common environment in which they are situated and they relate to each other. (Marginson 2006: 2)

Both internationalization and globalization encompass the nation-state but in a contrasting manner. In the international realm, national politics and culture might still be dominant. In the global realm the nation-state is decisively relativized by global relations and no longer the ultimate horizon of possibility (*ibid*: 3)

However, Marginson clearly interprets the development of the European higher education space as being more related to globalisation rather than to internationalisation and the prevalence of the nation state:

If part of the European project consists of negotiating closer collaboration between sovereign states that remain unchanged (internationalization), another involves creating pan-European systems and spaces with the potential to modify the role of nation-states (globalization). (*ibid*: 7)

Marginson states that the global transformations in political economy and in communications and culture are the essence of globalisation:

The essence of today's globalization lies in *the combination of global transformations in political economy with global transformations in communications and culture.* (*ibid*: 5)

Marginson also emphasises that globalisation has not simply replaced the role of national governments as regulators of national higher education systems, it has also broadened their horizons as governments have understood the increasing importance of higher education and research in determining the success of the nation state in the globalisation process:

Globalization has not meant that national and local contexts have lost their importance in higher education, or national governments have abandoned their system-ordering power. It *has* expanded their horizons beyond themselves. (*ibid*: 6)

Theichler (2004) has made a three-point list of the influence of globalisation in transforming higher education institutions:

Arguably there are three kinds of potential global transformation of higher education institutions:

1. Global processes distinct from national ones, that once established are difficult for national agents to block or modify, particularly the formation of a global market in universities or, say, a global market in academic labor, with the potential to swallow or crowd out national markets/ systems;
2. Global systems, relationships and flows that directly engender common changes in different national higher education systems leading to convergence. Examples within higher education include cross-border disciplinary networking, the use of English as the principal language of academic exchange, Internet publishing. Examples in policy include the creation of the European higher education area, with its potential for common structures and habits; and also the increasing similarity of approaches to PhD training. The question here is not just the existence and the salience of global flows, which is unquestionable, but whether they actually flow so far into national higher education systems as to create greater homogenization in national labor markets and career norms.
3. Parallel reforms by the different autonomous national governments, following globally common ideas and templates, which leads to some convergence (though rarely to complete identity) between different national higher education systems. For example, almost everywhere policy and management are affected by global models from the USA and the UK, in which national systems are understood as quasi-markets and institutions as quasi-firms. Cross border 'parallelization' is facilitated by homogeneity in a national system and retarded by intra-system diversity (Teichler 2004, pp. 18-19, in Marginson 2006: 8)

An interesting view on internationalisation is stated by Van der Wende, who argues that historically internationalisation was viewed as merely individual cross-border mobility that did not affect systems and institutions:

Conceptually, internationalization was for a long time mainly seen as concentrating on the cross-border mobility of individual students and scholars and not as a strategy that affected higher education institutions or systems. (Van der Wende 2001, p. 432, in Marginson 2006: 4)

It is hard to distinguish between internationalisation and globalisation in this area, since internationalisation can be seen as the reason for the changes in the above stated definition. If we use the other definitions of globalisation as being a more market controlled term, while internationalisation is more state centred, the idea of these reforms and changes being due to globalisation can be arguable. It may even, depending on definitions, come out as part internationalisation and part globalisation. And what is to be defined as global trends and not international trends? Are international trends just within some countries/ areas, or can for instance cooperation between the developed countries, without the 3rd world, be defined as globalisation? And with these questions in mind, can we really distinguish easily between internationalisation and europeanisation? Can europeanisation also be internationalisation? Or will all international trends or reforms within Europe always be referred to as europeanisation? But in that case, what is then the distinction between internationalisation and globalisation? Marginson has some thoughts here as well: “This contrasts with Europeanization which is an explicitly political project” (Marginson, 2006: 7)

It could also be argued that Europeanization (though like Americanization premised on a sectional, in this case regional, global strategy not a worldwide interest) is less aggressively sectional than is Anglo-Americanization. Western European nations more consistently support multilateralism, donate much more foreign aid as a share of GDP than does the USA, and tend to focus on aid projects designed to build local agency in developing nations. (*ibid*: 29)

Still, the idea of internationalisation/globalisation can easily be mixed up with europeanisation, as these terms are not necessarily easy to distinguish:

Fligstein and Merand remark that if trade is the measure, “much of what people call ‘globalization’ is in fact ‘Europeanization’ ... The main effect of the EU’s political project has been to increase dramatically trade within Western Europe.” The nations of Western Europe are responsible for almost half of all world trade and almost 70 per cent of their exports end up in other West European nations. Fligstein and Merand argue that economic globalization should be understood not as a single worldwide process but as a set of different processes of

interaction, including regional integration. The formation of singular regional markets is facilitated by collaboration between states (Fligstein & Merand 2002, pp. 8-10, p. 13 & p. 21, in Marginson 2006: 29)

The definition and distinction between internationalisation and globalisation used in the thesis will be the definition used by Knight, but most of the thesis will relate to the concept of Europeanization, as its primary focus lies within the Bologna agreement and changes made within the European space. It is interesting to refer that Veiga, Rosa and Amaral, based on interviews of academics in several Portuguese higher education institutions conclude that

... Portuguese HEIs are aware of the importance of internationalisation, even if actors in general do not have a clear perception of the differences between internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation and their respective challenges. (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2005: 114)

Theoretical approach

Governance is related to the role of the state and the relationship between the state and the institutions, the society, the economy and the political governing (Strehl, Reisinger and Kalatschan 2007: 21) . “The relationship between state and institutions is characterised by two dimensions: control and finance.” (*ibid*: 23) This makes the institutions and the internationalisation process interconnected with the state in many cases in Europe, the connection being very strong in the European countries where the state carries most of the financial burden of tertiary education. We can observe two extreme situations. In those countries where public support for higher education is still substantial and generous, higher education institutions expect the state to create financial incentives to promote internationalisation. In those countries where retrenchment operations existed and where market values dominate, higher education institutions have internationalisation strategies to “sell” higher education services to international students to diversify their funding sources and complement the more uncertain public funding.

As we are comparing the behaviour of institutions in two countries, Portugal and Norway, it is interesting to use several theoretical approaches to determine to what extent the two countries and their higher education institutions have similar or different approaches to internationalisation. The analysis of the internationalisation

process will pay attention to the characterisation of institutional strategies, to the rationales explaining internationalisation and to the nature of the internationalisation process and its importance in higher education institutions.

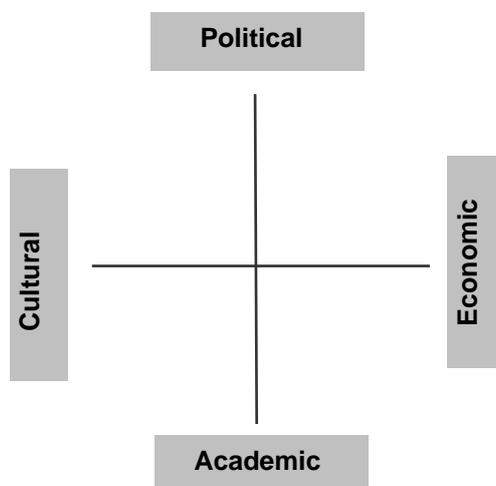
As a starting point for further research, Knight's six approaches to internationalisation are interesting (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2006: 3- 4) with respect to both Portugal and Norway, as this is an approach to define strengths and weaknesses regarding the internationalisation process.

Table 2 Knight's six approaches to internationalisation

Approach	Description
Activity	Study abroad, curriculum and academic programmes, institutional linkages and networks, development projects, and branch campuses.
Outcomes	Student competencies, increased profile, more international agreements, and partners or projects.
Rationales	Use of primary motivations or rationales, such as academic standards, income generation, cultural diversity, and student and staff development.
Process	Integration of an international/intercultural dimension into teaching, learning, and service functions of the institution.
At home	Creation of a culture or climate on campus, which promotes and supports international/intercultural understanding and focuses on campus-based activities.
Abroad (cross-border)	Cross-border delivery of education to other countries through a variety of delivery modes (face to face, distance, e-learning) and through different administrative arrangements (franchises, twinning, branch campuses, etc).

Knight and de Witt suggest that four different rationales underlie national policies of internationalisation in higher education. These rationales are: political, cultural, academic/educational and economical (Knight and de Witt 1995 in Amaral and Rosa 2008: 2). Using the model developed by van der Wende based on Knight and de Witt's model, the countries may be clearly located in one or two of the four quadrants (van der Wende (1997: 36) in Amaral and Rosa 2008: 2- 3).

Figure 1 The Van der Wende model



“Each rationale has a minimum at the axes crossing point and the importance of any one of the rationales is independent of the other rationales.” (Amaral and Rosa 2008: 3) The political rationale for internationalisation is dependant on what role the country has in the world. This is depending upon international relations, both in business and diplomatic relations, national security etc. The cultural rationale is often viewed as common language and contact with former colonies in the case of Portugal. In the case of Norway this will probably be rooted in the historical connection to Sweden and Denmark, both politically and with respect to language. The academic rationale is looking into tertiary education, with regard to implementing international standards in education and research. The economic rationale is increasingly important, due to tertiary education becoming an area generating income and of competition (*ibid*: 3).

I will also use the Davies model. The importance of the Davies model is that it explains the level of internationalisation of each organisation, instead of characterising the process at system level. This two-dimensional model uses two axes, one of them related to the degree of importance of internationalisation in the institution – from marginal to central –, and the second related to the organisational type of the internationalisation processes – from *ad hoc* to *systematic*. An institution strongly relying on its internationalisation will be placed in the systematic/central field, while an institution where internationalisation is incipient will be placed in

quadrant 1. (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2006: 4- 5) It will be interesting to see where the examined universities in Portugal and Norway are located.

Figure 2 Type of organisation of internationalisation processes

		Ad Hoc	Systematic
Importance of internationalisation in the organisation	Low (Marginal)	Ad Hoc/Marginal	Systematic/Marginal
		1 Usually has few foreign students or academic staff. Academic cooperation is based on individual initiative and does not appear in the institutional mission statement. There are few specialised personnel for the management of international affairs and no incentives exist for engaging in cooperation.	2 International activities have a small scale, but they are well organised and coordinated. Operations are targeted; they coincide with institutional strengths and opportunities and are based on a conscious internationalisation strategy. The institution is involved in few international projects and exchanges, but they enjoy adequate funding and are managed by a small number of competent staff.
	High (Central)	Ad Hoc/Central	Systematic/Central
		3 International activities are large in volume, but not very focused. While the institution may put an increased emphasis on some areas, internationalisation generally takes place across the whole range of disciplines and departments in the institution. Projects are often motivated by the aim to create revenue, but there is no coherent cost policy. A number of “dead” agreements and schemes exist. Support services and quality assurance are not fully on par with activities. Internal conflicts are quite frequent.	4 International activities are high in volume, but they also form a coherent whole, and they are based on one single, coherent strategy. Operating procedures and codes of practice are well formulated. Curriculum and personnel policies are frequently revised and support internationalisation. Well-trained staff carries out project and financial management in a professional manner. An incentive system exists within the institution. Quality assurance is well developed and few internal conflicts disturb the institution.

These three approaches combined should allow for a characterisation of internationalisation in Portugal and Norway as well as that of its chosen institutions. These theoretical frameworks are also useful for looking into the obstacles for internationalisation in the countries in question.

Background

European cooperation in higher education is not new, and can be seen as an ongoing process that received a new impulse from the creation of EEC/ EU and the successive agreements and declarations being made and signed. Corbett states that in order to understand the development of the Bologna process and EU, one needs to look at the past, and see why there was a European policy dimension of higher education in the first place. To do so, she used a methodology based on the “interplay between context, situation and agency.” (Kingdon 1984; Barzelay and Gallego 2006; Zahariadis in Corbett 2008: 4) According to Corbett the personalities who worked on the European higher education system played a role in making the cooperation as it is today, (Corbett 2008: 14) and she also claims that between 1955 and 1989 two major policy episodes occurred. Firstly there was an

“[...] effort to create a supranational university under the 1957 Treaty of Rome [...] This culminated in the 1971 decision to create the European University Institute in Florence. The second episode relates to the more familiar efforts to develop effective cooperation between member states on higher education issues, with the increased use of Community instruments.”
(*ibid*: 3)

According to Corbett the outcome of this effort was the creation of the Erasmus programme, in 1987.

The first time leading political figures of a European Community made a proposal to raise the standards of universities, and to encourage them to be more European, was in 1955. (*ibid*: 5)

A supranational university was also proposed. This became a part of a later Treaty, having originated the European University Institute in Florence and was combined with a proposal from the French on a training and research institute for nuclear energy for the atomic energy community (*ibid*: 6). This European University created the need to have ideas made from scratch, something that proved not so easy due to the ministers references being based upon their own national – and therefore divergent – models. Another obstacle was the fear within the higher education institutions to be drained of prestige and funding (Palayret 1996; Rüegg 1999 in Corbett 2008: 6). On paper a second attempt in 1960 to formulate a policy at official level got much further. “A key proposal of the report was to organise all volunteer universities and national

research institutes in Europe into concentric circles of institutions.” (Corbett 2008: 6) The thought was that this would lead to Europeanising mechanisms like student and academic mobility. The idea also included that the recruitment of researchers from institutions in other member states would give a European label to the research institute. The plan was to have a European University in the centre of this, focused on the humanities.

These plans led to serious conflicts, and the politicians drew back from the Interim Committee’s proposals (Hirsch 1988 in Corbett 2008: 6), and a summit in Paris in 1961 “finished the European University as a potential Community institution.” (*ibid*: 7) The next step came in 1969, when the French proposed an idea for a more common dimension for education in Europe.

They proposed reviving the Bonn idea for member state ministers of education to meet on matters of common interest. They wished to propose a European Centre for the Development of Education.[...] The significance of such a move was that ministers would have at their disposal the institutional resources of the Council of Ministers General Secretariat, and the potential support of the Commission. (*ibid*: 7)

The outcome of all of this was coordination of information through a specialised bureaucracy in the different directorate-generals of the Commission. This bureaucracy also reported on teaching and learning. The European University was eventually started in Florence, planned in 1970- 971 due to pressure from the Italians, in its new form as a humanities institution (The Institute of Florence). “From 1971, education was a policy domain with an appropriate venue” (Baumgartner and Jones 1993 in Corbett 2008: 8).

The next step that occurred was the start of the Erasmus programme. In 1974 the reference to culture was left out of the rationale for participating in educational exchange.

Educational action should reflect the specific objectives and requirements of the policy sector. On no account should it be regarded as a component of economic life. On the other hand, a programme of cooperation would reflect the progressive harmonisation of economic and social policies without leading to any harmonisation of educational policies (Council of the European Communities, General Secretariat 1988, in Corbett 2008: 9)

The Commission answered, after several different suggestions of solution, with “the Action programme in education of 1976” (Corbett 2008: 9). This led to conflicts regarding the linking of education and training, that were covered differently in the Treaty, and some national delegations were worried that the Commission was going above its powers. Still, the Action programme led to closer cooperation at the institutional level, one example of cooperation being the student exchange schemes. The start of this cooperation was due to admission rules being different amongst different countries, and driven by the need to get around these regulations.

From around 1983 the change in political climate can be seen, as the different participants in the debate started viewing universities as a means to create a stronger European identity, and with student mobility as its instrument. This led to funded, and unfunded, university cooperation.

Around the same time, education and training were moved from the Research Director General (DG) to a new DG, Social Affairs. This led to a linking of education and training with regional policy, as well as with responses to the IT changes that were starting then (*ibid*: 10) And as a continuance, a scheme for training young people in the technological culture was developing, and this was the start of the COMETT programme. Another scheme linked to this was a programme that focused on university cooperation and student exchange, later known as the Erasmus programme. The thought was that

[...] COMETT, which could be demonstrated as falling within the Treaty, would create a precedent for an Erasmus decision. (Corbett 2008: 11) [...] This was also an opportunity to include the experience from the joint study programmes. The suggestion has led to an unforeseen dispute, where the primary issue was “sovereignty and budget procedures. (*ibid*: 12)

This dispute was solved through a new interpretation of the Articles of use, which got challenged by the Commission, which led to the European Court of Justice deciding that even though the Council was right in its interpretations, the Commission could still move ahead as planned and separate education and training (*ibid*: 13).

Cooperation increased in the mid 80s, and during the next years, programmes like COMETT and ERASMUS started up, as mentioned, followed by DELTA, PETRA

and LINGUA. Of these one can state that the ERASMUS programme, giving financial support to students and staff mobility amongst other, became the most known, and is referred to as “EC’s flagship programme.” (van der Wende and Huisman 2004: 19) In 1995 ERASMUS became a part of SOCRATES, an umbrella programme for both general and higher education.

This led to several different changes, but of which three were of most important according to van der Wende and Huisman:

- First a stronger focus was put on the development of European (internationalised) curricula. It was assumed that the curriculum was an adequate level for more in-depth academic cooperation, that European (or internationalised) curricula would better accommodate the joint learning of students from different national backgrounds, and that such curricula would also offer a European dimension to students who do not study abroad.
- A second reform related to management practice. Instead of contracts with individual co-ordinators of cooperation projects (sometimes up to 100 per institution), the Commission introduced the Institutional Contract, in which each participating higher education institution submits only one single institutional application, resulting in a single contract including the totality of its EU-funded activities in the area of education. The idea was not only launched to enhance efficiency, but also to encourage institutions to develop an institutional strategy on European cooperation. In line with this idea institutions had to submit a European Policy Statement to outline their main aims and objectives in European cooperation.
- Third, a growing range of countries, in particular in Central and Eastern Europe, were included in the programme. (*ibid*: 20-21)

The cooperation on the curricula level turned out to be the most challenging part of the change.

The development of curricula at initial or intermediate level or new degree programmes at advanced level seemed to be best embedded in the institutional strategies. The development of such curricula seemed to be indeed an academically challenging activity well beyond organisation of student mobility. Many innovative, and interdisciplinary approaches were developed. However, the actual institutionalisation of these new programmes (or their acceptance as a new part of the regular curriculum) turned out to be quite difficult. (*ibid*: 21)

The new degrees suggested were also a challenging job due to the national systems being different (*ibid* 2004: 21).

The need to find ways of acknowledging qualifications internationally led to “[...], the 1997 Lisbon Convention on Recognition of Qualifications (Council of Europe, 1997)” (Veiga, Amaral and Mendes 2008: 2) which “was another political step confirming the need for further efforts to recognise qualifications.” (*ibid.*) Following

the Lisbon Convention, four European countries initiated the convergence between higher education systems; Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom in 1998.

The idea was to

[...] harmonise the architecture of the higher education systems in Europe. The response to this request came as soon as 1999 when 29 European countries signed the Bologna Declaration in which they jointly expressed their aim to establish a European Higher Education Area by 2010. (van der Wende & Huisman, 2004; 23)

This agreement was called the Sorbonne Declaration, signed by the ministers of education from 29 countries (EUA 2008). This meeting agreed upon 6 so-called action lines:

- adopt a system of easily readable and comparable degrees
- adopt a system with two main cycles (undergraduate/graduate)
- establish a system of credits (ECTS)
- promote mobility by overcoming legal recognition and administrative obstacles
- promote European co-operation in quality assurance
- promote a European dimension in higher education (*ibid*)

After this, the Ministers of Education in the signatory countries have met every second year to evaluate what has been done, and what needs to be changed in the future. At the end of each of these meetings there were communiqués, stating the main issues discussed during the different meetings and the agenda for the next two-year period.

At the meeting in Prague in 2001, three more action lines were added:

- inclusion of lifelong learning strategies
- involvement of higher education institutions and students as essential partners in the Process
- promotion of the attractiveness of the European Higher Education Area (*ibid*)

In the 2003 Berlin meeting Ministers decided to set up an intermediate 2005 deadline for progress on

- quality assurance
- the adoption of a system of degree structures based on two main cycles
- recognition of degrees (*ibid*)

At the meeting in Bergen, the Ministers committed

to reinforcing the social dimension and removing obstacles to mobility, as well as to making progress on

- Implementing the agreed standards and guidelines for quality assurance
- Implementing national frameworks of qualifications
- Awarding and recognising joint degrees
- Creating opportunities for flexible learning paths in higher education (*ibid*)

This process is not an attempt to make all of Europe homogeneous, but to keep autonomy and diversity while promoting convergence of the European higher education degrees to a common structure. Many of the participants focused upon reforming the degree-systems and introducing ECTS. The goal is a simple, fair and efficient recognition of higher education qualifications, increased mobility in Europe and increasing the attractiveness for students from other parts of the world.

The Bologna Declaration states further that in order to establish the European Area of Higher Education and for the promotion of the European system of higher education in the world, the following objectives will have to be attained:

- Adoption of a system of degrees easily readable and comparable in order to promote European citizens' employability and the international competitiveness of the European system of higher education
- Adoption of a system based on two cycles; the first, of three years at least, qualifies one for the European labour market
- Establishment of a system of credits – developing the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) – acquired also in non higher education contexts, provided they are recognised by the university systems as a proper means to favour the widest and most diffused student mobility
- Elimination of remaining obstacles to the effective exercise of the rights to free mobility and equal treatment. (van der Wende & Huisman, 2004; 23)

“The Stockholm European Summit in 2001 and the Barcelona European Summit in 2002 restated the importance of full employment and the objectives of the Lisbon strategy” (Veiga, Amaral, Mendes 2008: 3) There is also a possible neo-liberal interpretation of Bologna. Ensuring a decent level of Employment is a responsibility of the State; employability is an individual responsibility (Neave 2005). The employee should then spend part of its salary to be permanently updated in order to remain employable. Therefore the State can consider that its duty is to ensure a free first cycle relevant to the labour market. Consequently the second cycle may be considered under employability and as such paid by students. The same may be applied to lifelong education. It is also a goal to secure high quality, and make

lifelong learning a part of the different institutions' planning (van der Wende and Huisman 2004).

Mobility and employability, although being assumed as major political goals of Bologna, both at national level by each government and at European level by the EU, had not the same priority for higher education institutions, which tended to emphasise the importance of achieving the shift from the teaching paradigm to the learning paradigm (Veiga and Amaral 2008: 5)

It could be interesting looking into the different reasoning for these priorities. May it be due to the complexity of focusing on mobility and employability? That other instances from outside the universities will have to be involved? Is it easier to change the pedagogical focus within the institutions? Is it considered harder to change the view of employability of students internationally? Or is that considered the responsibility of other political instances, like the EU?

Norway

Structure of Norwegian higher education

Norway has a binary system, and before 2003 it consisted of state university colleges, four traditional universities and two national institutes of art. There are also several private higher education institutions. Approximately 36 % of the women and 30% of the men between 25 and 64 in Norway have tertiary education (Facts about education in Norway 2008 – key figures 2006: 13) and around 79% of men and 86% of the women have finished secondary school (*ibid*). Public higher education institutions had 92% of the student population in 2000, are mainly state funded, and received 98% of the public expenditure on higher education. There are no tuition fees at public institutions in Norway, neither for national nor international students. There has been an increase in external share of funding since the 1980s, but public sources still account for 87% of research and development expenditure.

Higher education in Norway today consist of: 7 universities, 7 specialised institutions at university level (including 1 private), 24 state university colleges, 2 national institutes of the arts and 2 private university colleges, 31 private institutions with accredited study programmes “(22 of which receive some public funding) and approximately 195 000 students, of whom approximately 24 500 study at private

colleges/university colleges” (Education – from Kindergarten to Adult Education 2007: 16) The number of universities will probably increase during the next years due to changes in requirements, and a higher education reform suggested. These days the Stjernø-commission is proposing a new reform in the structure of higher education. Different models of change are suggested, but all the tertiary education institutions should be re-structured, and the institutions are asked to suggest what structure would be best, before the government decides. A stronger state or governmental control over the sector is also a part of the results suggested (Stjernøutvalget 2008: 16). This proposition is debated in Norway, as some institutions are not positive to a big reorganisation like the one proposed. The reason behind this suggestion is concern about the size of the research communities at the different institutions amongst others. The commission claims

there are 51 places to study at state universities and colleges, of which 41 have less than 2000 students, and 19 less than 1000. Many small study places and institutions will have problems meeting the changes in student population size expected after 2015, and the increasing tendency for youth to study in the larger cities. (*ibid*: 15)

The commission also stated that the differences between colleges and universities would decrease, due to more colleges introducing PhD programmes. To achieve university status in Norway, the institution has to offer 5 Master programmes and 4 PhD programmes (*ibid*: 15).

In 1995 a common law for state universities and colleges was implemented. During the debates on the Quality Reform, the Parliament expressed the need for a new law that also included private tertiary institutions. This law was implemented August 1. 2005, after the Ryssdals-Commission had revised the tertiary education laws. This law was mainly built upon the former laws for state institutions (*ibid*: 46).

The Quality Reform

Norway’s answer to the Bologna agreement came with “Kvalitetsreformen”, the Quality Reform, in 2003. The reform started with the Mjøs-Commission Report in 2000, called “*Freedom with Responsibility on Higher Education and Research in Norway*”. This was followed by a government white paper called: “*Do your duty – Demand your rights*” in March 2001, which again led to the Quality Reform

(Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 85-86). This reform led to change of several areas within Norwegian higher education, both in how the institutions were financed, how they were governed, teaching and learning approaches, student support, internationalisation and regulations around the student loans amongst other (Maassen, Nokkala and Uppstrøm 2004: 96). The Quality Reform applied to higher education institutions, national agencies in higher education and students, the status of institutions, funding models, institutional governance, and models of teaching and learning, student support and the degree structure (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 86)

The degree structure changed to the two-degree system with bachelor degrees of three years and masters of two years. The new grades introduced were also according to the ECTS agreed upon through Bologna, and a full year of studies is measured in 60 study-points. With the Quality Reform internationalisation became a part “of the national higher education policy agenda, underlining the international dimension of research, teaching and learning.” (Maassen, Nokkala and Uppstrøm 2004: 96) Internationalisation got an increased importance with the Quality Reform, and the international dimension of research, teaching and learning was pushed forward by the national higher education agenda (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 86).

Quality improvement was a rationale for reform.

[...], internationalisation is framed as a major instrument for the general objective of improving the quality of HE, in both its teaching and learning aspects and its research function. (*ibid*)

And arguments for internationalisation are universalism of higher education institutions and internationalisation as a way to ensure quality in higher education and research. Quality measured by international standards is a way for a small country like Norway to ensure quality of research through cooperation with other institutions. The Quality Reform seems to be the main driver in the internationalisation process, which shows how important governmental regulations are for international focus. Apparently, the Quality Reform seemed to result in a reduction of exchange students, due to the efforts towards development and presentations of new programmes. This might be a temporary effect of the reform (Frølich & Stensaker 2005: 63). Three closely related trends are emerging: i) the internationalisation is increasingly formalised in institutions, international offices etc.; ii) the internationalisation is

centralised, formerly run by enthusiasts in an individual basis. Now the programme based agreements are changing this into institutionalised agreements; iii) the internationalisation is now taken care of by professionals, with proper institutional exchange agreements (*ibid*: 64).

There is also an economical rationale; investment in higher education and scientific research leads to international competitiveness where quality will be the main factor leading to success (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 87). Economy also became a part of the institutional incentive to participate in internationalisation; the institutions would receive a fixed sum per student that participated in an international programme lasting more than 3 months, the same financial support would be given for each student received from abroad. This includes all public institutions (*ibid* : 90- 91).

Internationalisation

Internationalisation of researchers and teachers is promoted through participation in European programmes such as the Marie Curie programme, and the Research Council administers these initiatives. The relatively high student mobility is not met by an equal mobility amongst the academic staff. There is participation in internationally big projects though; this cooperation has received an increase in governmental funding. Quality has an emphasis on publications of Norwegian research in international publications. This has been a success (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 92), to the level that it is measurable. This will probably mean that there is less research published in the Norwegian language, something that may have a negative impact on the development and use of the Norwegian language in the future. There have also been some attempts to make it easier for international researchers to work in Norway; tax-agreements, easier access to work permits etc. (*ibid*)

Mobility of students, teachers and researchers leads to increased knowledge and development. Norway needs to be a part of international research due to the size of the nation and of the university faculties, since it is hard to fund and run big research projects (*ibid*: 87). Internationalisation is primarily the institutions' responsibility, and happens on the institutional level with regard to administration, economic incentives, agreements etc.

It is the Ministry's view that Norwegian institutions should be in the forefront of academic cooperation and student exchanges between countries. This can be promoted by increasing the priority given to participation in international programmes and exchange agreements between individual institutions. It is seen as a goal that all higher education institutions shall offer students a period of study abroad as a component of the Norwegian degree course. The Ministry will consider whether it is appropriate to require educational institutions to offer opportunities for study abroad to all students who wish it. The Ministry will review the arrangements for fee grants and other additional grants to ascertain whether it is possible to redistribute some of the funds to strengthen the internationalization strategies of Norwegian universities and colleges. (...) In the ministry's view it is important that the Norwegian universities and colleges continue to develop their provision of courses held in English. Educational institutions should decide for themselves what provisions they will make in relation to other languages (KUF 2001: 41- 42, in Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 93).

Norwegian higher education is not in the position of being able to make money on higher education like the English-speaking countries; tuition fees are not allowed, there is no direct financial incentive for receiving international students other than through the new funding scheme, which does not cover the full costs of the programme (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 94).

The Quality Reform demands more documentation by the higher education institutions' activities, also within the field of internationalisation. In 2001 7% of the Norwegian students were enrolled in foreign institutions. This does not include the students participating in exchange programmes for shorter periods; this refers to "free movers" (*ibid*: 98), and their numbers are increasing. Norway is a net exporter of students, and an importer of higher education. There are a high number of international students in a European perspective, characterised as many students who do their full degree abroad (*ibid*: 98). The percentage of foreign students in Norway has stayed fairly stable between 5 and 7% for the last 30 years, but the amount of students going abroad has increased. According to the Mobilityreport of 2007 though, the number of foreign students in Norway in 2005 was 4.3% (Krum & Søvik 2007: 8). From the end of the 1990's to 2003 the amount of students going abroad increased with almost 60%. (Wiers-Jenssen 2003: 19- 20 in Frølich 2007: 30) After 2003 the amount of students going abroad has decreased, from 7,1% in 2003 to 6,2% in 2005 (Krum & Søvik 2007: 8)

The main countries of choice in 2001/2002 were the Nordic countries and Western Europe, Australasia and the US. The Norwegian participation in Erasmus has

stagnated; this might be due to the increased interest in doing full degrees abroad, especially in Australasia (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 100). Strongly represented in Erasmus, both as destinations for Norwegian students, and as nationalities of students coming to Norway are Germany, Spain and France (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 99).

Student mobility

There are old traditions in Norway of studying abroad, as the University of Oslo was the first university on Norwegian soil, and opened only in 1811. Prior to this all students studied abroad, and even after this many students had to go abroad due to many fields of study not being offered in Norway until after World War II. In the 1950s, 30% of the student body studied abroad (Wiers-Jenssen 2003 in Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 88). In 1970 5.5% of the student body went abroad. In the 1980s this trend changed, studying abroad was no longer something one had to do due to lack of possibilities in Norway, but became a supplement to the Norwegian studies. This led to a change in funding of the international students, and from 1984 students would receive support regardless of the field being offered in Norway or not. Internationalisation had become something that was considered positive, and that the government wanted to support.

In the last half of the 1990s the number of students going to Australia and to custom-made programmes taught in English or German in the fields of medicine and veterinarian studies in Hungary, Poland and the Czech Republic increased significantly (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 89). This is a trend that the government wants to change to make more students go to non-English speaking countries. The students get a scholarship that covers at least part of the tuition fees, and makes it easy to apply to English language areas, even though the fees may be high (*ibid*). With the financial changes at the Stat Loan Fund in 2003, the tuition fee support is now granted as a partial loan, and not as a full scholarship, this includes an increase in support for students who apply to other language areas rather than English (UFD 2003 in Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 89).

The participation in Erasmus and SOCRATES is at institutional level. In 1998 more than 50% of the students participating in short-term exchange programmes did so

through Erasmus (SIU 2001: 4 in Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 90). International students coming to Norway are limited in number due to language issues, and Norway sends more students than it receives. There are fewer students participating in international programmes in Norway than in Denmark and Sweden, and many are from the 3rd world and participating through state- and institutional programmes (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 90). The trends one can see at this point is a change towards more focus on short-term programmes taken abroad as a part of a degree at home, together with attempts to attract more international students to Norway and a stronger emphasis of Norwegian students doing their masters/PhD abroad. The Norwegian internationalisation is actually decreasing, and has been decreasing since the peak year 2002, when over 14 000 students went abroad.⁴ In 2006 the number were down to less than 12 000 (Facts about education in Norway 2008 – key figures 2006: 8). The total number of Norwegian students in tertiary education abroad was in 2005 12 343, while in 2006 it was down to 11 746. The numbers of international students in Norway were in 2005 13 630, and in 2006 it had increased to 14 294 (*ibid*: 9).

Different actors in the higher education arena

NOKUT is Norway's answer to the Quality Assurance dimension of Bologna. It was established in 2002 by the Ministry of Education, and succeeds The Network of Norway Council. NOKUT has a rather strong autonomy, and cannot be instructed by the Ministry of Education other than by law (Maassen, Nokkala and Uppstrøm 2004: 97) The purpose of NOKUT is evaluation and accreditation of Norwegian higher education. NOKUT is also in charge of quality control in the form of establishing a notational accreditation system. Recognition of quality systems, institutions and study programmes are also amongst its tasks (*ibid*). Through this, the purpose of NOKUT is to control, supervise and enhance the quality of Norwegian higher education. Located within NOKUT is the ENIC-NARIC centre, which has its core activity as

responsible for providing foreign institutions and partners with information on the Norwegian educational system and the system for recognition of foreign HE qualifications. It is not yet clear what role this agency will have in the policy process and/or implementation of a policy for internationalisation of Norwegian HE (Stensaker, 2003), but given the emphasis on quality assurance and setting of quality standards especially in the European arena, this agency will in all likelihood become a core actor, also internationally. (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 83).

⁴ Exchange students and Phd students are not included

Another important part of the internationalisation of Norwegian education and research is the Research Council. It is responsible for funding basic and applied research and development. It is an important actor in internationalisation as it is in charge of programs for internationalisation, and for different funding schemes. It also represents the national government in international research strategic areas (*ibid*: 83).

The State Educational Loan Fund also plays an important role in Norwegian secondary and especially tertiary education. Amongst its duties is the administration of the financial support of mobility students. It gives support as loans and scholarships, and gives partial scholarships for covering tuition fees. (State Loan Fund 2008)

The Norwegian Council for Higher Education was established in 2000, and has a combined responsibility for universities and colleges. “The council is a cooperative and coordinating body of the Norwegian Universities and Colleges.” (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 83). The members are institutions and representatives from the student unions. It has an international branch, The Centre for International University Cooperation, which was established in 2001. The centre develops programmes and support functions for international cooperation and has been involved in the Bologna process (*ibid*: 83- 84).

International policy arenas

Norway participates in several different international policy arenas. NORPLUS is a Nordic network that has existed since 1988, and works for staff and student mobility. This network includes 25 institutions within the Nordic countries. NOKUT and similar organisations in the other Nordic countries developed a Nordic network for quality assurance agencies in 2003. The goal was to develop Nordic cooperation in quality assurance, and to create a common standard for quality assurance procedures in the region. The Baltic States are increasingly a part of this cooperation, as a natural development due to geography (*ibid*: 84).

Norwegian participation in the European context goes through The Council of Europe, the Committee for Higher Education and Research (CD-ESR). There are two Norwegian representatives; one from the Ministry and one from the universities and colleges. Norwegian participation is related to mutual recognition of degrees and study programmes for instance. The focus is also on UNESCO cooperation and on the Lisbon Convention. Norway is not a part of the EU, but it is still a member of research cooperation and the SOCRATES and LEONARDO programmes through the EEC, and the current agreement was signed in 1994 (*ibid*: 84-85). Norway proposed to the UNESCO General Conference in October 2003 a UNESCO run global system for quality assurance.

Cooperation with the western world goes largely through the OECD. Here national institutions send representatives to OECD sub-committees. The OECD reports on education are monitored closely in Norway, and have lead to debates, due to Norwegian results not being as good as anticipated. Norway also has agreements with Central- and Eastern Europe, Russia, the Barents region and the Baltic States regarding research and higher education (*ibid*: 85).

“The global arena is increasingly represented by UNESCO/UN and the development aid aspect of HE and research, but also by GATS and HE as a tradable service.” (*ibid*: 85) Education has traditionally been a part of North-South cooperation, but not necessarily in higher education (*ibid*: 85)

One field that makes researching internationalisation of higher education in Norway a challenge is the change in student funding that was introduced with the Quality Reform. To get the maximum scholarship the students have to finish in time, pass all exams of the semester and pass 60 study-points every year (State Loan Fund, 2008). This may lead to students choosing not to participate in exchange agreements since this may lead to the semester not being acknowledged as a part of the degree.

Portugal

Structure of Portuguese higher education

The Portuguese higher education system is also binary, consisting of universities and polytechnics, both public and private. At the time of the 1974 revolution the participation in tertiary higher education was 7%, in 1998 it had increased to 40% (Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 139). Portugal was, in 2004, spending 0.85% of GDP on research, the private contribution being 0.2%. The EU goal is 3% of the GDP, where 2% should come from the private sector and 1% from public funding by 2010 (*ibid*: 143). The requirements for entering higher education were lowered in 1989, by the government, something that increased the private institutions rapidly due to a fast increase in demand.

Portugal became a member of the EU in 1986, and the higher education moved from a state controlled system to state supervision (*ibid*: 156). There was also state support for increasing private tertiary institutions, since this would lead to an increase in the number of offered places without increase in state funding. This led to a quick increase in private institutions, which to a great level offered fields of low costs, mainly localised in Lisbon and Porto, which resulted in an unbalanced distribution of programmes, both geographically and by discipline.

After 1998 the participation rate had become quite high and the government became more concerned with quality than quantity, and decided again to increase the requirements for entering higher education. This, combined with decreased birth rates has led to an abrupt reduction in the number of candidates to higher education. At this point the number of candidates was close to the number of study places offered in the public institutions, leading to problems for the private institutions (*ibid*: 139). Some research findings show the expected decrease in birth-rates will lead to continued decline in the number of potential students, which will lead to a crisis for several private institutions (Amaral & Teixeira 1999 in Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 139).

Even though the educational level in Portugal has increased over the last years, only 11% of the population had higher education in 2001 (OECD thematic review of tertiary education. Country Background Report: Portugal 2006: 8) The fairly low

number of people having finished secondary education is probably at least partially due to the dictatorship and the lack of focus on education during that period. Completing 12 years of education will in the future be mandatory in Portugal.

In the period between 2002 and 2005 the number of students registered in public higher education institutions fell by 10%, representing a loss of 29 000 students. This decrease in enrolment can be seen as a result of changing demographics trends, the unsuccessful rates in completing secondary school and the increasing exigencies in admission to higher education. In the last year government measures have begun to successfully address this decline and turn enrolment rates around to a growth of 1.5% for 2006-2007. (*ibid*: 94)

and

Nevertheless, Portugal remains one of the European countries with the lowest number of graduates, and increasing the academic and professional qualifications of the Portuguese society continues to be an essential factor for economic, social and technological modernization. Contrary to what is sometimes affirmed, Portugal does not have too many graduates, but actually has too few. (*ibid*)

Implementation of Bologna

Since 1998 there have been six different Ministers in charge of higher education (HE) and to date no Minister has stayed long enough in office to adapt the legal framework to the Bologna Declaration, which requires an Act of Parliament (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2005: 95)

This instability can be an explanation to the lack of Portuguese implementation of common regulations regarding higher education and internationalisation. It is also true that there is a tradition in Portugal to pass very detailed legislation that are more like regulations than decrees. This explains why changing the degree structure was not easy because the degree structure was defined in the Fundamental law on the education system, an act of Parliament, and any change would need another Act of Parliament. In May 2004 the Parliament passed an Education Act defining the new Bologna-type degree structure. However, the Act was not consensual and all the political parties in opposition voted against and the President of the Republic (July 2004) did not promulgate the Act that was returned to the Parliament.

Meanwhile, the Government announced legislation to introduce an ECTS compatible credit system and the compulsory use of the Diploma Supplement, and appointed specialised task forces (for disciplines or groups of disciplines) to work on the implementation of the law. The Government expects that the task forces will come out with a definition of disciplinary competencies, minimum curricular contents and accreditation rules (*ibid*: 95).

Meanwhile, institutions became quite desperate with the successive delays and since they were in contact with many foreign institutions they tried to follow the international trends by adapting their programmes to Bologna at institutional level, as a response to the slow implementation of the necessary governmental regulations.

The results of these initiatives were met with different degrees of success depending on the level of institutional autonomy¹. The public universities were granted full autonomy by the University Autonomy Act in 1988, which made them free to change their study programmes, and many introduced ECTS and implemented the Diploma Supplement on their own initiative. Other institutions needed Ministerial approval, and their proposals were rejected due to the lack of appropriate legislation, something that has led to frustrations (*ibid*: 95).

In 2005 a new government came into office with a clear majority in Parliament. Law 49/2005 of August 30th was passed by Parliament introducing the necessary changes to the Fundamental law on education, thus opening the way for the implementation of Bologna. Decree-Law 74/2006 of 24 March defined the rules for the changes to be introduced to the old degree structure to convert the study programmes to the Bologna framework structure. Since then, almost every study programme has already been converted to the Bologna structure.

The Bologna process led to a debate around the degree structure and the changes that needed to be implemented to fulfil the agreement. This debate has taken place before the passing of Decree-Law 74/2006. At the time the length of the degrees was 3 years for Polytechnics first degree, and 4 years to 6 years for the university's first degree, depending on the discipline (e.g. 4 years for chemistry, 5 years for engineering and 6 years for medicine). The debate around a new degree structure and the length of programmes lead to suggestions of 3-6 years for undergraduate studies (1st cycle), and 1-2 years for graduate studies (2nd cycle) that would not change much the old degree structure. There was also a suggestion of separation between polytechnics and universities. In this model the polytechnics would provide undergraduate studies and a

¹ For instance, while public universities enjoy full pedagogic autonomy, public polytechnics and private institutions were not allowed to create, suspend or cancel study programmes, and they must submit these proposals to the approval of the Ministry of Education.

short masters. Both universities and polytechnics offering one-year masters, and only universities offering the two year masters was also suggested. Another suggestion was that the decision should not be based on the nature of the institutions but rather on the institutions capacity or the accreditation system should make the decision of what each institution could offer which programme. Other suggestions were made, and it seemed difficult to implement a common system covering all the institutions that received general consensus.

Decree-Law 74/2006 shows that the government has finally decided to use the implementation of the Bologna process to protect the binary system by making more clear the separation between universities and polytechnics. The law established that polytechnic education is clearly vocational and the normal duration of the first cycle is three years. Only in exceptional cases can polytechnics offer longer degrees, for instance, if some national law or European rule establishes a longer period of studies to follow a profession. Polytechnics can offer a second cycle, also with a vocational emphasis (the thesis being replaced with a project or a professional training period). Universities are free to decide on the length of the first cycle (3 to 4 years), they are allowed to offer integrated masters, scientific masters and PhDs. The Law also establishes differences at the level of the academic staff that should be mainly composed of expert professionals in polytechnics and of PhD holders in universities

Another factor has been the strengthening of institutional autonomy over the last 30 years, which has lead to top-down changes being almost impossible without negotiations (Teixeira et al. 2003 in Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 144-145), especially in the case of public universities. The higher education institutions have the responsibility for the curricular development of their programmes, and international agreements do not automatically lead to changes in the programmes (Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 145). The implementation of the SOCRATES programmes and the cooperation on curricula turned out to be difficult (van der Wende and Huisman 2003 in Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 145). This also turned out to be the case in Portugal, as the influence of these programmes proved diffuse, and is not visible as systematic and productive results (Teixeira et al. 2003 in Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 145). On the other hand, prior to the 2005 law, student mobility led to information being integrated by the institutions, and to more flexible views of curricular organisation.

The institutions have also been forced to implement new administrative and academic structures for student exchange (Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 145).

Internationalisation

Internationalisation in Portugal can roughly be divided in three target groups; 1) Students participating in exchange agreements with the former Portuguese speaking colonies to support development, based on political agreements and common language. 2) Children of Portuguese emigrants. 3) Students participating in the European exchange programmes, to establish closer links with higher education institutions in EU countries. There was also a policy in the 1960s and 1970s to improve the qualification of the academic staff in universities. The idea was to grant a number of scholarships for Portuguese PhD students at good international universities abroad (Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 140), something that supported the idea of closer links to European institutions and was the basis for the development of the Portuguese higher education system after the 1974 revolution.

Due to the reduction of student numbers over the more recent years, a consequence of a declining birth rate, these private institutions have experienced some problems. But not only private institutions have experienced problems recruiting students; public institutions in the inland have also had problems the later years. This has led to an incentive for recruiting new student groups, and international students became attractive (*ibid*: 157), namely because

A recent document published by the Ministry of Science and Technology establishes that higher education institutions are entitled to define the level of the fees to be paid by foreign students, while for national students institutions they can only set the level of fees between a minimum and a maximum value established by the Ministry. (*ibid*: 157).

This will not affect students coming through programmes like Erasmus, EU students and others participating in bilateral programmes. But it may lead to attempts to promote Portuguese institutions abroad (*ibid*: 157).

Based on the results of the Heiglo project², Veiga et al. consider that until the 2005 law was passed, the main factors hindering internationalisation in Portugal were, according to the institutions researched:

- Lack of appropriate national legislation;
- Lack of appropriate funding;
- Internationalisation is not seen as a key factor at national and institutional level;
- Lack of central coordination of research activities [...] as a consequence of its decentralisation (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2005: 113)

There were challenges to be faced in the internationalisation process. Institutions researched by Veiga, Rosa and Amaral in 2005 saw the objectives of the internationalisation process as:

- A way to give students an education that is “less ethnocentric and more open to other cultures“ [...]
- A way to position the university in a “communicant vessels’ network with international organisations” [...]
- Offering opportunities for both the reinforcement of existing partnerships and the establishment of new activities. [...] (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2005: 98)

Prior to the 2005 legislation, some institutions implemented the ECTS on their own initiative, which shows a considerable degree of institutional autonomy (mainly for public universities). All Portuguese higher education institutions developed internationalisation strategies to participate in EU programmes. Student and staff mobility brought back ideas that were implemented by the institutions, which shows convergence between Portuguese higher education institutions and European institutions (Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 145).

The political rationale for internationalisation is the connection of quality to internationalisation, especially in a European context, similar to Norwegian thinking. There is also a cultural rationale as Portuguese is one of the most spoken languages in the world, but not in Europe, and cooperation with the former colonies is a big part of Portuguese internationalisation (*ibid*: 140). The lack of use of the Portuguese language in Europe, on the other hand, is a drawback for attracting European students

² This refers to “a study of six Portuguese higher education institutions, which is a part a research project funded by the EU’s 5th Framework Programme for R&D – Improving Human Potential and the Socio-economic Knowledge geographical location, legal status (public or private) and sub-system (university or polytechnic)” (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2006: 3)

to Portugal, something that is also noted in the report on the Erasmus unit of the SOCRATES National Agency. To make this less of an obstacle, the institutions are providing language courses:

To guarantee levels of quality adequate to the labour market's needs in an increasingly competitive and global economy the focus is on the adoption of internationalised criteria to improve the quality of the system (*ibid*: 141)

According to Graça Carvalho, a former Director of GRICES, there were several problems or barriers to mobility:

- Low internal mobility of Portuguese students due to the difficulty in establishing cooperation links among the Portuguese institutions.
- Low mobility of international students due to the lack of attractiveness of Portugal in the European context (linguistic barrier – most undergraduate courses are taught in Portuguese).
- Administrative and legal instruments that hamper free circulation of people (foreign services, social services) (*ibid*: 142)

Carvalho stated that these barriers should be removed as soon as possible, and there were groups created within the ministry working on making the system more attractive. Another problem was funding, regarding both education and research (*ibid*: 142):

The policy areas directly connected with the internationalisation of Portuguese HE are:

- Quality evaluation and accreditation allowing for the definition of criteria of transparency and comparability with the other European countries' higher education systems.
- A strategy that would make more flexible the mobility (vertical and horizontal) of students.
- A research policy (which should include a closer relationship with the private sector) that would increase the participation of Portuguese research centres and universities in international projects.
- Reinforcement of cooperation with PALOP countries and East Timor (*ibid*: 143).

Law 1/2003 contains signals around quality of higher education and an accreditation system, but makes no direct reference to internationalisation (*ibid*). The Europeanization is developed according to EU policy, and the EU is also the main financial contributor (*ibid*). And when it comes to student, staff and research mobility, Portugal is getting more international every year, especially within Europe, with the exchange agreements that cover some of the costs.

Student mobility

Portuguese students primarily go to Spain, France, Italy, Germany and the UK. The rationale for choosing these destinations is probably language and cost (Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 146). The number of students coming to Portugal has increased too, and the majority comes from Spain, Italy and France. The number of incoming and outgoing students is relatively even. According to the OECD, the number of international students in Portugal was ca. 1% in 2000 (*ibid*: 147). Teachers mainly go abroad through SOCRATES programmes, and primarily to Spain, Italy and France, like their students (*ibid*). Researchers go to the US and UK (58%), and an increasing amount is going to Spain. The different kinds of scholarships are influencing the preferred destinations for post graduation students going abroad. The international students doing a PhD in Portugal come from a variety of countries. There are different economic support agreements and grants: The Gulbenkian Foundation in social sciences, exact sciences, human and life sciences for instance, and the Marie Curie Fellowships in research, technological development and demonstration, but this plays a minor role (*ibid*: 149). However, most funding is provided by the Foundation for Science and Technology, a foundation linked to the Ministry for Science, Technology and Higher Education.

Portugal has taken some responsibility for its former colonies in Africa. There are three particular agreements for PALOPs (Países Africanos de Língua Oficial Portuguesa) students, depending on their field of study. The majority of students come from Cape Verde (*ibid*: 150). Portugal also has, next to these three programmes, grants to undergraduate students. There are also programmes that give grants to graduate- and post-graduate students from the PALOP countries, and programmes to support Portuguese students doing post-graduate field work in African studies (*ibid*). There are also cooperation agreements with Mozambique, Cape Verde and Brazil.

Portuguese students participate in internationalisation through networking. The goal is for them to come back to Portugal to participate in the development of the country. There are also programmes for getting international students into the workforce in the private sector; this is difficult in the public sector due to economic restrictions that limit the number of stable positions (*ibid*: 151).

Different actors in the higher education arena

Traditionally, the structure of higher education has been like the following; FCT has the main responsibility of implementing science and research policies and of funding the research units established in the higher education system. GPEARI (Office for Planning, Strategy, Assessment and International Relations) is in charge of providing information for policy design and strategic planning, ensuring and coordinating international relations and following and assessing policy implementation. Both of these are Ministry agencies. The National Agency for European Programmes is in charge of managing the SOCRATES and LEONARDO programmes (*ibid*: 158). The Ministry for Science, Technology and Higher Education is responsible for both research and teaching activities in higher education (there is a separate ministry for education at lower levels).

An interesting aspect of Portuguese higher education is the policy for Information and Communication Technology, ICT. The UMIC, the Agency for the Knowledge Society is a public body in charge of coordinating policies for the information society and to promote activities that will mobilize society for qualification and scientific research. UMIC is responsible for a number of projects and programmes, including the establishment of computational networks for research and higher education and for schools, the programme for society and citizenship that promotes the use of TIC, the programme for electronic government that promotes the use of ICT in public services, etc. The UMIC is responsible for representing Portugal at international level, in the areas of the Information Society and TIC, namely in specialised expert groups of policy in the EU, OECD and United Nations.

The main effects of internationalisation policies in Portugal were:

Portuguese internationalisation policies intend to promote in the institutions, teachers, students and researchers an attitude favouring participation in internationalisation activities. Considering the autonomy of higher education institutions, those policies aim to create opportunities for the development and management of these activities (*ibid*: 144).

International policy areas

Support for internationalisation was reinforced in 2001 through the activity of ICCTI, an agency of the Ministry for Science and Technology established in 1998. Portuguese international policy is that institutions and research centres should be in charge of internationalisation in higher education institutions for the most part, while the activities of the ICCTI covered three main areas:

- The Portuguese participation in the EU science and technology programmes, namely in the framework programmes.
- The development of scientific and technological or cultural relationships in the framework of bilateral agreements, with special emphasis in bilateral cooperation with Portuguese speaking countries.
- The participation of the Portuguese scientific community in large laboratories and international organisations with confirmed relevance for science and technology, and the participation in international or multilateral scientific programmes and networks besides those of the EU (*ibid*: 152- 153)

The number of PhDs by Portuguese students both in Portugal and abroad have increased a lot; from a total of 337 in 1990 to 1276 in 2006 (GPEARI, 2007: 4). However, it is interesting to note that in 1998, the year most students did their PhD abroad, 236 did so, while 482 did it in Portugal. In 2006, the top year of PhDs taken by Portuguese students, 1157 did the PhD in Portugal, while 119 did it abroad. The numbers of students doing their PhD abroad has decreased quite a bit since 1998, with the exception of 2001, when there seems to be an increase in students doing their PhD abroad again. These numbers indicate a strong raise in offerings of PhDs in Portugal, a raise that seems to have been steadily climbing every year, since mid-1990. (*ibid*)

As mentioned, there is state supervision in Portuguese higher education, but also institutional autonomy. This has led to some challenges for implementing an international agreement like the Bologna Declaration. The institutions were, however, aware of the importance of internationalisation, and tried to implement programmes that followed the international trend even before the necessary legislation was passed; like implementing degrees compatible with the ECTS system, having specialized internationalisation departments in the organisation, plans and ideas around international students, and some institutions had programmes in cooperation with international institutions, especially with Portuguese speaking countries (Rosa, Veiga and Amaral 2004: 157). All this has taken place even before the 2005 legislation.

Now that the necessary legislation was passed, the thought that “a Bologna type pedagogic reform is already in place is overoptimistic” (Veiga, Amaral and Mendes 2008: 8). However, official documentation tends to present an overoptimistic view. The last stocktaking report prepared by the Bologna Follow-Up Group, Portugal has achieved a lot of success on the access from the 1st to the 2nd cycle in the period 2005 to 2007, and on the implementation of the national qualifications framework (*ibid*: 9). This favourable vision is not compatible with the results of research made by Veiga, Amaral and Mendes:

[...] there is no evidence that HEIs are using the same references for the definition of learning outcomes. The establishment of the national qualifications framework should be further developed to accommodate different academic and vocational paths. Additionally, quality assurance is seen as an internationalisation tool. (*ibid*: 8)

According to this analysis, the Portuguese system may need to work further on implementation of the two cycle degree system even after 2007, and to increase the level of student enrolment in the two cycle system. Although the tables of the stocktaking report show impressive progress, Portugal still seems to have some way to go. According to Veiga, Amaral and Mendes, in Portugal

[...] the national report assumes the naïve view that there is already a fully operational NQF [national qualifications framework], inspired on the Dublin descriptors, which is far from reality (*ibid*: 10).

Some problems with the other parts of the Bologna agreement have also been noted:

The problems in using the Bologna tools reported in Trends V were also visible in Portugal, namely the incorrect and superficial use of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), the disappointing use of the Diploma Supplement and the lack of involvement of higher education institutions in the development of the National Qualifications Framework (Veiga and Amaral 2008: 5)

But this might be due to the short time frame since Portugal implemented the agreement, and the fact that it is still at a testing-phase in this country. However, according to Veiga and Amaral, Portuguese higher education institutions used the implementation of Bologna to make pedagogical changes and introduce curriculum reforms, but “without targeting the reform to the goals of Bologna (e.g, mobility and employability)” (*ibid*: 6)

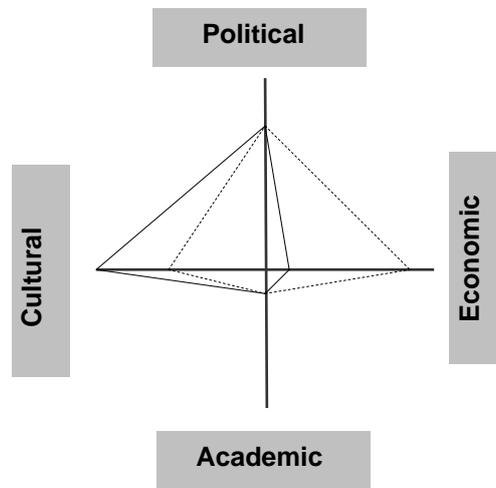
Theoretical analysis

Exchange of students in Portugal and Norway when using the European programmes has probably a different rationale from the one supporting exchanges of Portugal with the former colonies – not necessarily economic, but based on common language and redress relative to former colonialism (Rosa, Veiga & Amaral 2004: 140); and in Norway the social pressure to help developing countries may play a part in the explanation of the support given to African countries.

The approaches to internationalisation in these two countries seem to have some similarities. Norway's participation goes to a certain extent through different exchange agreements, with Erasmus as the major agreement. The other trend in Norwegian exchange goes through agreements with third world countries. Portugal too has two main trends; the former Portuguese colonies, the PALOP countries, and the European programmes, with Erasmus as a major agreement.

The activity in both countries seem to go through different agreements of exchange, the difference is the Portuguese focus on PALOP countries, and the Norwegian focus on developing countries. This may have its natural explanation in Norway's lack of former colonies. The rationales in Portugal are, according to Rosa, Vega and Amaral (*ibid*: 140), political and cultural, and recently moving over to an economical one. Norway too has primarily a rationale in the cultural and political area, as there is no such thing as tuition fees, neither for national or international students. Wender's model of the rationales for internationalisation will in both cases look fairly similar for the public institutions.

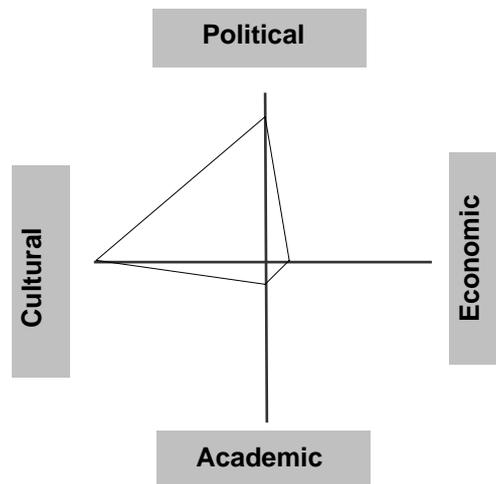
Figure 3 Portugal in the van der Wende model



—— Public institutions Private institutions

(Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2006: 9)

Figure 4 Norway in the van der Wende model



According to the research made on 6 different institutions in Portugal for the mentioned article, “The Portuguese government does not have a clear strategy for the internationalisation of its higher education system.” (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2006: 12). The institutions are moving from an Ad Hoc/ Marginal approach towards and

Systematic/Marginal type of organisation, and according to this research the larger public universities have moved into the phase of Systematic/ Marginal.

At present one may conclude that so far the development of an *ad hoc* approach based on “reactive responses to many new opportunities that are being presented for international delivery, mobility, and cooperation in postsecondary education” (Knight, 2004: 19) describes the dominant features of the Portuguese higher education system. (*ibid*: 11)

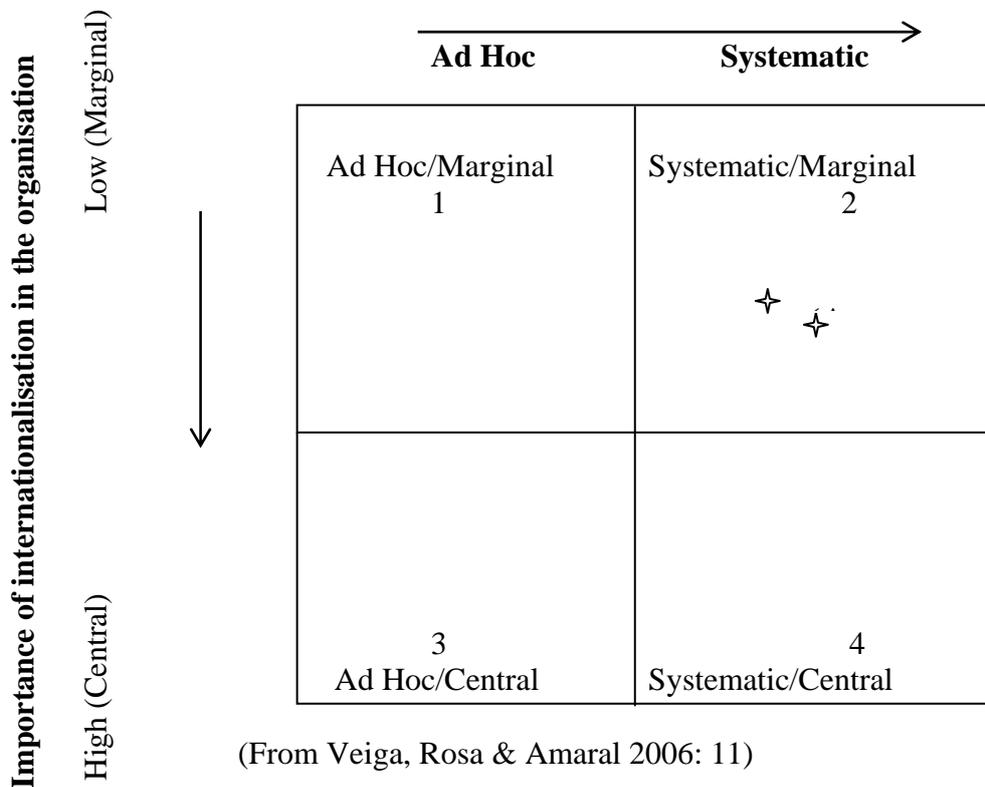
The Norwegian system is closer to the Systematic/ Marginal level, as the Norwegian government has made economic incentives for the institutions to participate in internationalisation (Gornitzka & Stensaker 2004: 90- 91). This has most likely lead to more institutions developing programmes and schemes for international exchanges. Norway also implemented the Bologna agreement in 2003, with the reform named The Quality Reform. Still, there are institutions not as far ahead on the internationalisation as the biggest universities, and who have not implemented as many programmes in English or other international languages, especially on community college level.

At last it is interesting to analyse the language issue seems to be a part of the problem for internationalisation in both Portugal and Norway, according to the interviews made. However, the language contexts are quite different in the two countries. In the case of Norway, the fact that Norwegian is not a language spoken by many foreigners makes more difficult that institutions reach the level of Systematic/Central, but as a optimistic interviewee said; this will most likely change within the next 20 years or so, due to new professors with more knowledge of English taking over (Internationalisation officer, Maths and Natural Sciences). The case of Portugal is substantially different, as Portugal was a former colonial power and Portuguese is spoken by many millions of people across the world. There are clearly two opposite policies. Some defend that Portuguese universities should teach mainly in the mother tongue which is also spoken by many students coming from the old colonies. Others argue that universities should increase teaching in English to increase internationalisation, even if this eventually means decreasing the number of students from the former colonies that might, for instance, prefer to go instead to Brazil.

The two universities used in this paper have some similar features, like for instance being the biggest single universities in their respective countries, and have been chosen because of this, to make the comparison more equal. They have also been chosen due to location and personal attachment.

The Davies model looks into how the institutions organise the internationalisation process, and both the institutions in question seems to be at about the same level, Systematic/ Marginal.

Figure 5 Type of organisation of internationalisation processes



Due to these similarities the two institutions seemed to be a good choice for a comparative analysis. And due to their size, they are most likely well organised in the matter of internationalisation, and have a structured and well-planned structure to this field, which makes comparing the institutions easier, and material on the real numbers of internationalisation accessible.

Interviews

10 interviews were performed, 5 at each institution. The idea was to have different areas of the institutions represented, to get different views on the topic. The interviewees were chosen to show the different views on the changes in the different parts of the organisation. It was therefore essential to get someone from the main administration office, the faculty offices and from the rector's team. Since the organisations are different, and the national divisions of disciplines are different, this was as similar as it was possible to get the samples. In Norway for instance, most engineering degrees are at the state university colleges, and not at the universities. Since the interviewees are anonymous, they were given a letter to show who has what quotation in the text.

Table 3 Interviewees; background and institution

University of Oslo	
A	Vice-Rector
B	Central administration officer
C	Central administration officer
D	International coordinator, Social Sciences
E	Internationalisation officer, Maths and Natural Sciences
University of Porto	
F	Vice-Rector
G	Central administration officer
H	Central administration officer
I	International relations officer, Arts and Humanities
J	International mobility coordinator, Engineering

There are different views of the Bologna Process, and the positive or negative impact this agreement has had depending on whom you ask. But maybe it is not Bologna that is the issue, but the interpretation of Bologna in the different countries? As one of my interviewees said: "Bologna has not actually helped us very much" (I) Can the implementation of the process and the different interpretations of the ideas behind the Bologna agreement be part of the issue in the different views of the agreement? It became fairly clear that while Norway had now taken a rather calm and matter-of-

factly approach to this, Portugal still have fairly strong opinions in the area, which is natural considering the time-frame since implementation. As the central administration officer at Universidade do Porto said: “But in my opinion it’s quite early for Portugal and even for Europe to understand the positive and negative effects of this, in the society” (G)

The roles of governments

The Norwegian and the Portuguese governments have adopted quite distinctive strategies towards internationalisation. In the case of Norway, the implementation of the Quality Reform has provided a tool for improving internationalisation by providing financial incentives and creating conditions for increasing international student mobility by introducing at least a semester for students to study abroad. The role of the Quality reform was recognised by all the interviewees and is seen as far more important than the Bologna process. For the Vice-rector: “Quality reform in 2004 there was this high goal, aim of all Norwegian universities should be more internationalised... (A)” A view shared by officers at Central Administration: “Quality Reform in Norway... we were encouraged by the authorities to formalize all co-operations agreements, and to give all the students an opportunity to spend a semester or two abroad... (C)”

The minister of education said in a speech “do your country a favour, leave it, for a short while, and come back.” (E), and the increasingly international work force was also used as an argument for internationalisation, “the probability is high that you will work in an international team, and the probability that English is one of the language of communication is also high.” (E)

At Faculties the role of the Quality Reform has also been emphasised:

“Quality reform in Norway, and this reform has changed the structure of managing internationalisation at universities, also at the university level and the faculty level. (D)”

... politically correct, so they have been encouraged at all levels, the minister, their teachers, and the university of Oslo it’s one of the indicators whether a faculty or a study programme is successful, it’s the number of outgoing and incoming students. (E)

Two important factors were refereed in the interviews: the provision of at least one semester for exchange in the new curricula and the financial incentives created by the government. For instance, “So in our kind of main model for study programmes there are also set points that you should ... point at the possibility at going abroad during a semester or two. (B)” “... new bachelor degrees, almost all of them have cleared one semester for exchange, that has made it more easy. (D)”

In Portugal the Bologna Process was implemented in 2007, which makes it harder to see which impact it has on the institutions and the education, as the central administration officer states. “Bologna was introduced last year, and it’s difficult to see how it will impact the mobility of students.” (H). There also seems to be some uncertainty as to what will happen in the future.

Because it is the first year, it is not experience, it’s not, I can’t tell you that we are going to have more students, fewer students, how it’s going to go, I really don’t have any predictions, it’s very... it’s made it less certain in a way, you know. (I)

Most of the issues in Portugal seem to be “related to the financial conditions. As you probably know quite well, in this very moment Portugal has not a very good economic situation.” (F) When it comes to the national agency’s support of mobility programmes, the vice rector say that “on the other hand, our national agency is not supporting very much also these programmes, which also means of course this is a difficulty.” (F) Furthermore he states “there is no official programme support by the government we can offer these students” (F) and

... because they have lots of interest to go abroad, but there are of course many difficulties related with financial questions you know, both the country and the university have today lots of difficulty. (F)

This is supported by the central administration officer, who states that “the grants are not high, and I think it’s also a problem to have the mobility with that money is difficult” (H).

Financial incentives and funding issues

The financial approach to implementing the Bologna agreement has been fairly different in Norway and Portugal. In Norway the government issued certain financial incentives to encourage internationalisation, as this is also considered a means of climbing on the rankings. The Norwegian institutions do not have “the pressure on getting money through international recruitment and so on like they have in many countries,”(B). The institutions get funding for incoming and outgoing students, ECTS credits made, and

For the outgoing students it’s an compensation for the cost, the loss of credits, when they are going abroad they are not taking they are not taking their credits here, so we are losing money but we are getting compensation, and for incoming students, we are getting the mobility support, mobility money, and... for incoming students we are receiving money for credits as usual, and also the mobility money. (D)

The financial incentive for international students makes the international student a good investment for the university according to the international officer for maths and science

... so the most successful student that [...] is that incoming exchange students from an agreement, because then you get one sum for coming in and if that student also produces money, produces ECTS credits, we get additional money, (E)

What has made student mobility a bit more difficult for the students themselves in Norway, are the changes at the State Loan Fund, as mentioned by the central administration officer

... if they go abroad and they have to pay tuition fees, they need to, there is only... they need to, well 30% is a loan, and 70% is a scholarship, whereas before everything, all of it was a scholarship. (C)

This may be a partial explanation for why Norwegian students do not go abroad as much as they could have, considered all the different opportunities they have to do so.

In the case of Portugal financial incentives do not seem to be used as an encouragement for participation in international exchange and it is not mentioned at a national level by most of the interviewees; “nor the country neither the university

have the possibilities of supporting these students as the Spanish for instance do” (F) is the only statement made about the lack of financial support from the government.

On the institutional level, these differences have naturally created differences in the way the institutions view internationalisation and approach the field. At UiO the increased cost is linked to the administration of international students, and “for research, academic staff, because they have to sit down and look into the programmes in other countries and so on.” (B) Another incentive implemented to make the international students more interested in learning Norwegian, and thereby be able to attend Norwegian language programmes is explained by the vice rector; “we are financing... part of the bachelor degree for the students who want to learn Norwegian.” (A). To sum up the experiences from Norway, it seems like internationalisation has been an important issue for both university and government, which has led to a focus on covering up the potential financial losses to the institutions. The findings support the notion of financial issues not being considered a problem with internationalisation at UiO.

At UP this seems to be an issue that has not been addressed, and the discussion goes more on the students’ problems with financing their stay abroad. “And so the faculty [...] is putting financial support to cover those who want to go and didn’t get the grant. That means a lot of money.” (J) If the faculty has to support their students financially, added to the loss of income due to no financial support or substitute from the state, internationalisation may seem like more of a burden than strength. It was said, as mentioned, “Because the grants are not high, and I think it’s also a problem to have the mobility with that money is difficult, and I think it’s one of the problems” (H) and “because the Erasmus students are not an income for the institution today” (H), something that combined makes internationalisation seem like a financial burden to UP. This may be of interest to look further into in the Portuguese context.

Internationalisation - response from the university

Since the governments in these two countries have responded differently to the implementation of Bologna, the institutions have had different time frames and approaches to the reform. In Norway, the Bologna agreement was implemented in an

educational reform as described earlier, and is spoken of as a part of the Quality Reform, not as a specific reform of higher education. According to the international coordinator at social sciences “this reform has changed the structure of managing internationalisation at universities, also at the university level and the faculty level.” (D). But there were issues in the implementation of this agreement in Norway too. It was fairly quickly implemented, something that according to the Vice-Rector has not necessarily been only good:

Norway was really eager to be the best girl in the class so we adapted all the grading system and... the bachelor/ master degree really fast, I mean we turned around and... not laid us completely flat on the floor, but almost like that. [...] (A)

Another factor that was not good enough was the way the agreement was introduced and implemented in the institutions, according to the Vice-Rector

... because as I said it was a top- down process, and the university staff was not informed or told about the aims of the process, they were just instructed, so I think that's why I think I can say there has been... a movement against only the word Bologna, if you just mentioned the word people would say (sound of sigh). I don't want to be part of that EU process, someone told us (A)

Still, this seems not to be of much debate in Norway anymore, as it is implemented, and 5 years have gone by since then, and as described above, there seems to be a new reform coming up in not too long.

In Portugal's case, the reform is newer and more debated. It has been a longer process, and a rather quick implementation. Still, there are few comments as to a national institutional response to the agreement. The one comment made on the agreement shows that some think that the different implementations of Bologna have been the problem, not the agreement itself. “Bologna was supposed to make more equal things between countries, and I think the implementation, it's not the Bologna process, it's the implementation of the Bologna process in each university, is increasing diversity.” (J) This is a very interesting comment, as it can be interpreted as the agreement being better or more solid if all details of institutional and national approaches had been decided in the agreement, and not been up to the different nations.

At UiO the changes to promote internationalisation were made due to the institutions wish to become more international, not necessarily only by the reform

... we are receiving more international students, but I don't think that has to do with the Bologna process. [...] We want to be more international and we are making process of recognition more easy than before, not because of the Bologna, (D)

Bologna is not necessarily considered the reason for internationalisation according to one of the coordinators "I think the process of internationalisation would anyway go on and go on." (D) The institution has plans on changing the focus, or on broadening it, to include "our aims is now to develop more student mobility outside of Europe as well." (A), and there are "3.world countries where we have special national programmes to support them financially" (B), "now we will focus maybe more on internationalisation and so on, and the quality in the mobility" (B) and "increasing numbers of students taking also full degrees" (A). Some issues are still problematic though, of more practical character according to the Vice Rector

There are lots of other aspects of the Bologna process that are more difficult, but... I don't think that I can say that it's been more difficult, [...] the problems is connected also maybe to student homes and... because we are committed to give our students somewhere to live, and we also have lots of Norwegian students coming from different parts of Norway, but we have to say to them that, we have to prioritise the foreign students (A)

The professors had some problems with the reform in the beginning according to the Vice- rector

... if you ask our professors they will say that it was a top-down process, someone told you almost over night that you had to change the whole system, really change everything, so... you can have some sympathy with the professors... (A)

In the case of UP, the experiences are fresher in mind, and the opinions are maybe less ideology based and more practical. There have been difficulties due to the recent change, "to prepare the mobility was quite confusing because dealing with new study plans, we couldn't follow any of the previous models, so there was a bit of an in definitions for a few months" (I). There have also been problems due to the different curricula in the different countries

So this led to a lot of changes of learning agreement during the year. This year was a tremendous task with all the transfers, the incoming and outgoing students have to prepare, have to be presented, analyzed and signed in order to have the final aprovement of the courses

that they follow, recognized by the host institutions learning agreement, the final agreement approved, so it was one of main difficulties with this process, (G)

It has also been a problem moving to the new attendance system, and the time students have had to make up their minds

If you give them a couple of weeks to decide what they're going to do, they are going to miss 4- 5 classes and all of a sudden you've got your 25%, and no matter how brilliant they are, they fail. So we have to rethink that as well. So, quite honestly, it has not made life easy at all. (I)

Other issues addressed by central administration officer were

... you can say that we have some decrease of student under Erasmus... specially if we had the perspective of the growing... adverts of growing that we have sent in the past year, so we suppose that we could have more Erasmus in 19... in 2007/ 2008 we could have a lot more students, incoming and outgoing, and this tendency of growing has not been so strong, because of the Bologna process I think, so we can say that has affected in the growing in the number of students. (G)

Still, these are mostly practical issues, and will probably be more or less overcome with time, "Because the university has a very important objective the internationalisation." (F). The institutions need some time to figure out these issues, like UiO has had for the last 5 years.

Bureaucracy and changes in international office

There seems to be a stronger emphasis on internationalisation, in participation in internationalisation in both countries. And due to the increase in internationalisation, there is also an increase in bureaucracy, there seems to be a common notion of this at both institutions. In the case of Norway "The EU bureaucracy is the worst here, the Norwegian bureaucracy is peanuts compared to EU [...] of course we don't like that." (B) There is "Definitely more bureaucracy. Definitely. Not only connected to internationalisation, but to... but to... like quality assurance systems..." (E). Both interviewees from the international office seem to agree on the office having changed lately, but not necessarily due to Bologna. One of the interviewees thinks it's due to the growth in mobility. There also seems to be an agreement on the structure of the office being changed. The words used to describe the changes are: more professional and more focused in later years. There seem to be a disagreement between academics and administration of the importance and meaning of bureaucracy at UiO.

the academic staff they would say yes, and that's a big problem, [...] international affairs department, they will say that yes, but it's necessary [...] Because we don't want student mobilisation in universities... in... between universities that we don't have any research interest in. [...] So it is because we want to always see it in connection with research activities. (A)

The increase in bureaucracy seems to be especially related to the Erasmus programme

Erasmus exchange is very much, it is very much... bureaucracy I think, very much paperwork, papers going out and in and... pre-recognition processes, and, and all that. There are much bureaucracy now, (D)

And the Erasmus Mundus programme

And particularly when it comes to the Erasmus Mundus programmes, the bureaucracy have increased from year to year, and so much that the... some institutions, or at least some faculties within institutions, are hesitant when it comes to taking on the task of being coordinating institution within a, a Erasmus Mundus programme. (C)

Also outside Europe the bureaucracy seems to have changed “For... for other agreements outside of Europe, which is my field mostly, I don't, it has become more bureaucratic” (C), and some of the students find the bureaucracy a bit heavy “some of the students complain about the bureaucracy,” (C) According to the Faculty for Mathematical and Natural Science the bureaucracy at UiO has increased after Bologna. According to the Social Science Faculty there is a lot of bureaucracy in the Erasmus programme, but in the exchange agreements things are easier now than before. The difference in bureaucracy lies in where the students go.

On the question of how the international office has changed at UiO, the central administration officer states, “Yes, it has. It has very much, [...] Now we have a strategy, we have, you know, meetings every week, we have... yeah, we are more focused I would say.” (C) The international office also has experienced some changes in funding and positions at the central office “Yes, they have, they receive more money, and they also received a high number of positions, and I think their general status within the central administration has been raised. (E)”

Yes, they have, [...] entrepreneurial office, where they actually made a strategy about how to handle international student mobility, [...] raise their competency within evaluation of foreign education, applications for foreign students, (E)

There is agreement that the international office has changed, but not necessarily with regard to why, it might be a result of restructuring.

... changed for other reasons probably [...] we were split up to the student administration and the research administration, [...] the biggest international office[in Norway], we are almost 20 people now (B)

But “not necessarily due to Bologna, due to increase.” (B) When it comes to the question of increased work burden, the central administration officer said “people feel that they are more stressed now than 10 years ago” (B)

In the case of Portugal it is mentioned “I don’t think that Bologna is making the degree more transparent” (H), and

So I would say, straight to your question then, on one hand, yes there is some bureaucracy, but on the other hand you try always to find a way of say, if it is a Portuguese way, but to find a way to get an answer, to get a solution for these problems in a non strict, non bureaucratic, non conventional way you know. (F)

and the changes may be due to bureaucracy, not Bologna

Not due to Bologna, I think that those changes are more related to the demands that the agencies that fund the programmes need in terms of response, of filling in proposals and when the budget issue and things like that. (H)

The increase of staff at the international office seems to be due to more paperwork: “...the international office is a reaction of the increasement or the requirements from the European community that are more and more demanding in terms of programmes and projects (H)” and “Don’t quote me quite on what I’m gonna say; we are bogged down in paperwork, course we are!” (I)

The changes in the international office seem due to different streams in the university too. Some of the fields introduced by Bologna were already dealt with in advance

In the case of the university of Porto, the implementation of the ECTS started much before the Bologna process because it was a need of the European, of the Erasmus programme, to trade the students, that they need the ECTS, and the ECTS was running parallel with the other credit system we had. (H)

But according to the Vice Rector, the changes have not been big at the international office, or at least not in all areas;

the international office is a very consolidated structure, which has a... that very important experience. In these last 20 years, which means within the period of the Erasmus programme”(F)

So I will not say that the last developments of the Bologna process here in the university has changed a lot about their routines or about their way of thinking the problems you know. There are very skilled staff, which is very dedicated to their work you know, so I will not say things have changed a lot within these last years. (F)

The international relations officer seems to agree with the lack of changes in “Not really, not in terms of basic procedures.” (I)

Others do not totally agree with this notion though, and state that there were changes of the office “At the central level definitely, the international office grew over the last 10 years” (I), and the workload has increased “Have much more work to do, much more work to do, but it is more or less the same organisation, the same people we have working here” (G). The ideals of mobility are still the same for the entire university “But we have the same approach, common strategy in what concerns the mobility for all of the university” (G). The problem seems to be related to the lack of staff, which may mean that these changes are not necessarily due to Bologna, but probably lack of funding.

In Erasmus we have had this year more money, funding for rents. We have more money for rent but it’s not enough for all the prospective students that we could imagine to have if we have better funding, but it’s not really the work have sometimes duplicated, but it is not with more people that we have to pay for the staff is the same. (G)

But the problem is... to reply to you is not easy, because several things are happening at the same time, Bologna on the one hand, on the other hand, the growth in numbers of people moving in and out from Porto has grown considerably as well. (J)

Role of the international offices

There does not seem to be a governmental plan on the international offices in either country. At the university of Oslo, “all the faculties got an exchange coordinator or an international coordinator” (D). There has also been a big increase in the number of international students, something that naturally has played a part in the change of the international office “number of exchange agreements more or less exploded, and also the number of outgoing and incoming students in the frame of an exchange, formalised exchange agreement” (D). The international office has changed with regard to structure too, as mentioned before

Yes, they have, [...] entrepreneurial office, where they actually made a strategy about how to handle international student mobility, [...] raise their competency within evaluation of foreign education, applications for foreign students, (E)

Still, it does not seem to be a particular defined role of the international office, other than dealing with international affairs at UiO. The Bologna process has probably made the institution more pro-active in getting international students, and not only dealing with applications. The Faculty for Mathematical and Natural Science are in an increased manner selling the institution and are more active in the making of agreements.

At UP, there has probably been more focus on the role and the international office in the later years. The international office is linked to Bologna through implementing the instruments that Bologna has provided.

What I think links the international office with the Bologna is that the instruments that the Bologna is trying to implement, like the Diploma Supplement, or the ECTS are worries, or also instruments that the international office needs to have in place to make the life easier for the mobility students. (H)

... in the case of the university of Porto the principles that apply to the Erasmus students apply now to the other students (H)

... what I think is interesting is that that experience at the international level, people are trying to apply the same procedures to the mobility of national students. (H)

... the international office for the mobility the Erasmus students, the European students and there is another unit focussed on the students from Latin American countries. (H)

Problems with the motivating students to maintain a certain average grade are also mentioned

But there is or there has been a very high concern with the equivalence and the credit transfer and all those issues that are difficult to handle, because it's difficult to support students to have the same grades he had abroad, have the same grades at home, (H)

Still, these all seems to be things that will be dealt with "I think things will become more flexible. Right now we are just dealing with moment by moment issues that keep coming up, that didn't happen before." (I)

The role of the international offices will be of great importance, as the internationalisation becomes a more important part of the universities image and

funding. The issue of the declining birth rates is important, and may in the long run lead to a more aggressive search for new students in the future.

Mobility

On the question of mobility there seems to have been some encouragement to participate from the Norwegian government, both in the formalisation of agreements, the new modules and the new opportunities to go abroad. But there are also some issues that have made mobility more difficult to the students.

it has facilitated the exchange in the sense that now we have modularized courses [...] outgoing students, it... has also been a success [...] Quality Reform in Norway[...] encouraged by the authorities to formalize all co operations agreements, and to give all the students an opportunity to spend a semester or two abroad [...] more students have participated in exchanges now then before the introduction of the Bologna, or the introduction of the Quality Reform. [...] some students might feel it's more difficult, because now they have a more rigid system in their bachelor's degree for example, while for others it's easier because they have the so-called free courses or semesters that they can really choose how to build up this 40... what we call the 40 free ECTS points? [...] a strategy for student mobility, where the main goal was to double the amount of incoming and outgoing students. [...] it has been a success if you compare it with the numbers before the introduction of the Quality Reform. [...] intentions in the Quality Reform, and the incentives put there by the government, would be financial mechanisms and so on, (C)

How the ECTS are defined is also a problem according to some. The Norwegian mobility students seem to have some preferences as to where to go, and these trends are changing, but if this is due to Bologna or not is hard to tell.

... what they really would like to go is to go somewhere exotic where they can... where they can study in English, like South Africa for example, it's been the number 1 destination for quite a few semesters now. So... I don't know if the Bologna has had any impact. (C)

But when it comes to the outgoing students, it has just created so many more possibilities in the rest of the world that they came to... there seems to be trends, that used to be Australia, not so much anymore, and now the United States is picking up, probably also because the government is, has a focus on North America, as well as Latin America, which has also become quite popular. (C)

On the question of differences between students in the Bologna area and students outside this area, there are differences of views, as one point out the fact that Norwegian students are very interested in the bilateral agreements, and not so much in Erasmus, while the incoming are primarily through Erasmus, which creates an imbalance. The other interviewee mention that all international students get the benefit of more courses taught in English. There seems to be a mutual agreement that

Bologna has not made it more difficult for the full cycle students, but not necessarily any easier either.

In Portugal, issues with mobility seem to be “the most of them are related to the financial conditions” (F), and changes in mobility patterns, something that probably will be a part of a change of mentality in time.

We had very little post- graduate mobility before Bologna, and I think there have to be a change in mentalities [...] students can do mobility in Erasmus as long as they are higher education students, at undergraduate-, masters level and PhD level, a lot of people think that it's only for the undergraduates (I)

So it's not, it is a difficulty that has come up from the structural change, but because it's so new, I think it will change over time when students start to understand that there are other opportunities to do mobility. (I)

The Vice Rector at UiO just said “Yes” (A) at the question if the Bologna agreement had made student mobility easier. This view is more or less shared by the central administration officer:

In some ways yes.[...] So in our kind of main model for study programmes there is also set points that you should ... point at the possibility at going abroad during a semester or two. [...] we cleaned up our agreements [...] that new agreements should be of high relevance to student mobility. (B)

Other issues mentioned were:

... we have challenges with different calendars, when the official start of the academic year starts, and, so, when it's overlap with when the examination periods are. That's the main challenge. And we also have had some problems with how the courses are presented. (E)

Still, this is not a view shared with everybody, the internationalisation officer at Maths and Sciences says “And with the Bologna process you know and the ECTS... ECTS system, this has been made so much more easier” (E).

One of the biggest questions seems to be why not more students go abroad “the numbers are not as high as we expected they would be” (C).

... why do all these thousands of students, why do they choose to stay in Oslo? [...] so you could say that some of the students that choose not to go abroad, they do get an international experience, but here, at the University of Oslo. (C)

Another issue encountered at UiO is the question of where students want to go, compared to the agreements the university have, and the registration of these:

... quite a large number of students who go to places where we don't have agreements, you know, like the Middle East for example, or to places, you know they do their field work, they go for two weeks on PhD and it's not registered somewhere you know. (C)

There are some changes in the incoming students “There is another group that is increasing now, which is the self-financing master degree students from everywhere” (B) and “we are also able to receive more and more students from everywhere, and we see that number is increasing” (B).

At UP there are some structural changes noticeable “in our foreign students we are getting a lot of students who are coming in their 2nd cycle” (I) but this change is not done in a day, “This will take a long time, do you know what I mean? So there have to be a change in mentality” (I). But the issues with mobility encountered may be due to the fact that this is the first year after the reform.

There is also a question of recognition of the students and their background, something that seems to be easier with 1st cycle students than 2nd cycle students, due to recognition difficulties.

... whereas undergraduate students we would accept generally, you know, because we had the agreements [...] are really free to choose from all our degrees, not just the area in which the agreement has been signed (I)

UP has also encountered some problems due to the changed programmes, as these changes makes some students fear going abroad in case the courses will not be recognised.

... a little bit afraid of going out, and expecting to have a number of courses already determined and then they could face changes that are not compatible with the programme here. So sometimes the students are a little bit afraid. But I think it's, it's now settling and next year I suppose that things will be already working smoothly. (G)

Mobility students vs. international students

There are some differences regarding the short term mobility students – who usually come through Erasmus – and the full degree international students in Norway:

... most of the countries within the Bologna, most of the Bologna countries, they are also member of the European Union or affiliated with the Erasmus programme, and, and there the

students are able to come here on, with a scholarship. [...] we get more Erasmus then what we call bi-lateral students, or students outside of Europe. (C)

In Portugal there has probably been a longer history, or stronger bonds, to the presence of international students, due to the tight bonds to the PALOP countries. The issues mentioned on a national level do not seem to be a big problem for the interviewees. “Those who come to have the whole degree, well they have to understand that the degree is different, but sometimes it’s with the same outcome for them” (G). There is also a focus on the positive influence of being able to move within Europe:

... they understand that if they are coming here to a full degree in Portugal they can... either they have this full degree recognised as a full degree in other countries in Europe. (G)

... a problem that maybe you will have in understanding the high level of homogenisation and quality in Europe, and this is important for the students who want to come to Portugal you know. (G)

At UiO there are some differences in these two groups; the long-term stays are outside Europe, “When it comes to study abroad it’s higher within the Bologna area. Short-term stays” (E). On the question of which mobility group has increased the most, the answer was “inside the European area” (D). The majority of the students from outside Bologna area seem to want a degree at UiO, while the mobility students seem to come from the Bologna countries. The majority of the communication is with students from outside the Bologna region at the Faculty of Maths and Natural Science. At the Faculty for Social Science, the experience is different, as the majority of international students come from inside EU, and with that the Bologna countries, and this seems to be due to internationalisation being a trend.

There are some issues with regard to Erasmus in some countries, like Germany, where “they are starting to charge Erasmus student some kind of semester fee which is rather high, which is a problem.” (B) Another issue is that “some of the programmes that have been created are more rigid than they were before.” (C) Other problems encountered have been the time limit to finish in time:

... many students feel that they have less time, you know, to spend a semester abroad and we, and we... I mean, if they want to finish... within three years, and they want to go abroad, they need to take a full credit load at the university where they study abroad. So many students might feel that it’s a chance to take, perhaps it’s going to be too hard, they don’t have that much extra to go on, when it comes to time and money. (C)

Another argument for Norwegian students to go abroad on an Erasmus agreement is “... when it comes to the countries in Europe, we are also concerned about, you know, promoting the opportunity to go somewhere in Europe and take quite a bit of money with you (C)” And the university is also “looking for ways to promote the numerous opportunities in Europe, or within the Erasmus umbrella.” (C)

According to the Social Science faculty at UiO, they have always had full degree students at all levels. It is mentioned an increase in programmes taught in English, and this is seen as a reason for increase in students, but it is not seen as a part of the Bologna process, but more an international trend. This process is not seen as a part of Bologna at all, but as a part of the university’s need to be more international. This is also the reason for the changes in the recognition process, and here the Lisbon process is considered more important than the Bologna. At the Faculty for Mathematical and Natural Science, they have all courses described in English, and the information is easier accessible. The awareness seems to have increased too, and there are English classes given to staff at both administrative and technical level. This faculty seems to have become more attractive to international students from all over the world, both short term and long term. According to the Social Science faculty at UiO Bologna has not made any changes as to the difficulty of student mobility, but the university has been forced to create possibilities for the students, which has made it easier. At the Faculty for Mathematical and Natural Science they do not think the Bologna process has made student mobility any more difficult.

There are also issues regarding the understanding of the European grades for students outside the Bologna area:

... within the new grading system, we have one letter more than many other countries, one passing letter more, which leads to trouble for the, for the North American students for example, who come home with a C and they’re, they usually are given an A in the American system, (C)

According to the Vice Rector there seems to be some more issues related to the students coming from outside the European area, this seems to be due to lack of agreements. Some of the challenges are due to the fact that Norway is a very

expensive place to live, and with the grades given compared to the students expectations. There is also recorded some issues related to the learning outcome for international students due to different pedagogical approaches and expectations in the different countries; “they are not used to be as critical and reflective as the Norwegian students” (A)

Another area of concern is that it is easier for European students to come to Norway, and then the issues of the different service levels expected from non-European students and their families:

... it’s easier for the European students to come here, to get a visa. [...] it’s cheaper for them to fly home, [...] So, there are more practical hassles when it comes to students from outside of Europe, and... you know we have, we’ve had phone calls from concerned parents, especially in the United States, who haven’t heard from their daughter or son over the weekend, and, you know, very rarely that we hear things like that from European parents. And of course the European students are perhaps more used to the kind of service that we are able to give students when they arrive. We have a team that takes care of them, and that they can come and ask about all kinds of things, and we arrange, we have special events and study groups and everything to take care of their social needs and so on, but still... it’s more recognizable I think for European students, the system here, whereas, I tend to use the Americans to, as an example, they are... more used to a completely different level of service you know, they’re a little bit scared when they have to, when we don’t pick them up at the airport and... [...] So I think for some of the bilateral students, they are more immature, and they are used to being catered to in different ways, but very seldom do they return, and most of the time the feedback is that they have learned a lot, and they feel that they have grown. (C)

At UP the issues are said to be the same for international students and mobility students with regard to the new curriculum and course system:

... raised the question of how limited is their access to the masters degrees here. [...] we have been very free at undergraduate level, how free are we going to be at post-graduate level? [...] I should inform the student that sorry, you can’t choose from 3 different masters, choose from one, and maybe, and then it should be possible. (I)

There is one area though that has been noticeable, “what is really amazing is the very fast increasing in the numbers of those students that came from Brazil“ (F). And most likely the Bologna process did not affect other students than those within the Bologna area, “I really don’t think so, we are getting a lot of mobility from Brazil, for example, that has been on the raise the last couple of years, definitely, it’s been exponential.” (I)

Non-mobility students from Brazil for example, choose on a case-by-case system courses similar to the ones they would have at home.

... that they find subjects that are in some way equivalent to what they would have to do at home, and that is a subject by subject choice, it doesn't really, it has so far, it hasn't really affected their choices [...]so for the mobility students it's all an issue not of the structure itself, but subject by subject choice, that's basically it. (I)

Another characteristic is that “outside Europe, we have more mobility of the advanced studies” (G).

Language and use of English

There does not seem to be any strong incentives made from either government to promote English as the teaching language.

At UiO there was an effort “in the introduction of the new programme we also focused a lot on setting up courses in English, so for mobility both ways, incoming and outgoing students” (B), at the same time the issue was also “it is difficult to force professors who don't like to teach in English to do it, so we don't do that, try to avoid it at least” (B). “But there are so many teachers who are excellent in English, really excellent, they master both conference manner English and also the social manner English” (E). This is apparently not something they all agree upon “So we have a long way to go, a really long way to go I think.” (A) Even though “we have this English programmes for academic purposes, but... I think we should do more.” (A)

At the same time there efforts have been made to do something about faculty and technical staffs language skills, and to find other approaches to the creating of English speaking courses:

And I think it's an increased awareness among the staff both scientifically and administratively, eh, of the challenges of having international students at the faculty. And there has been given also courses in English for administrative staff, for technical staff [...] Bologna has triggered an awareness, an increased knowledge about, you know, English, multi-cultural, international students the whole complex of issues connected to internationalisation, (E)

... we are also recruiting international professors, so we have professors with a very good background in English, [...] we need to have more courses taught in English, and there are very many ways to do this. (D)

There has been a focus on English in some of the programmes “we have developed a great deal of master programmes in English” (A), but:

Another problem is that many, especially from southern Europe, many students who come here to take courses in English, their English is not very good, so we struggle a little bit with that, and we are not allowed to, as we have understood the rules from the commission, we are not allowed to require language testing, [...] but as a result of the opening up in Europe and the free mobility of people, we are not allowed to, to require that testing and that would have probably have been some quality, some good quality work done with if we could... (B)

To have enough courses taught in English have been an issue. There seems to be some different practice in how to deal with this; at the Social Science Faculty they have few courses at bachelor level taught in English, while they have more at master's level, something that leads to international students taking courses at that level even if they are bachelor students. Norwegian students also mention the low language skills amongst the international students as an issue, as this may lead to a decrease of the level of the education. At the Faculty of Mathematical and Natural Sciences they have had courses in English for the staff, and expect the language issue to be a small problem in a long-term plan. At the Medical Faculty the 9th semester is all taught in English, something that was implemented without a discussion with the staff, and seems to be a model for this faculty as well. The Bologna Process, ECTS, Diploma Supplement etc is considered a very positive factor for internationalisation at this faculty, and according to the coordinator something that they had worked for.

At UP too “language is also a difficulty, the most of the programmes they run in the Portuguese language.” (F). But the issue is more complex here, due to a large number of students coming from the Portuguese speaking PALOP countries

... one problem might be the language problem because when you speak about the mobility of European students you are speaking about English, the lingua franca is English, when you are speaking about other groups of students in the case of Portugal the Portuguese speaking students they expect to come here to speak in Portuguese not in English. (H)

... because most of the students we are receiving now, incoming students, they come mostly from the countries that are quite close to Portugal and the Portuguese culture and language ...
... we did not receive any students from the UK for instance (F).

... we're just going to have to change our policy in terms of accepting students who don't speak Portuguese. Or we offer them subjects in English, another controversial issue (I).

Here too it has proven hard to convince all professors to give classes in English, maybe even harder than at UiO, since there is a large number of international students who already speak Portuguese, and “it's a big fight and a big challenge to convince lecturers to give classes in English, because they couldn't care less” (J), still there is

an objective to increase the number of classes taught in English; “the objective of the rector and the objective of the head of our faculty, is that we might considerably increase the number of incoming students” (J).

The goals of at least some of the programmes are clear :

... our aim is that, every subject belonging to 4th and 5th year of any of the courses that we run here, should be able to be presented in English, if there is a foreign student, a non Portuguese speaking student, present. That is a big challenge that is still far from being obtained (J).

But this may prove hard to manage due to several circumstances:

I don't know even if the university decides to provide courses in English, I don't know if the universities have a market for that, and I don't know if the professors are prepared for that.”(H)

Length of studies

The issue of the decreased amount of time for the first cycle has been addressed in both countries, but again it is considered more of an issue in Portugal than in Norway, which is probably due to the time frame again. In Norway this problem is mainly related to exchange outside Europe, and exchange with the US was primarily mentioned:

Yes, there are some difficulties. [...] we don't accept the first year of their bachelors degree, we consider that on our high school level, to be on our high school level. [...] But our students going there, to do a full degree, get into trouble. [...] But, but within exchanges even, our students, our masters students have had trouble getting into or taking masters courses within the exchange, [...] we don't announce exchange places at masters level, because we know that they get into trouble. (C)

In the case of Portugal, this is still a work in progress, and the issues that arise seem to be requiring some work. The first issue is that the electives have disappeared and “The new programmes are basically compulsory.” (I) Then the issue of attendance

So there are attendance requirements and assessment requirements, you have to go to 75% of classes, and you have to do the papers, and you have to do an exam. [...] but a large majority of the classes attendance requirement were not obligatory, and students could do a subject just by taking the final exam, without ever going to classes. This was possible, as long as they took the final exam and if they passed the final exam that was it, they had done the course. They can't do that anymore. And this has raised a bit of an issue, with those mobility students who do not speak Portuguese (I).

This particular trait was however common in Norway too before the Quality Reform, and will require a change in the way of thinking amongst staff and students, which may take some time.

Furthermore there is the issue of the changing application pattern:

mostly students in the 3rd years and the 4th years, because we used to have 5 year degrees as well [...] We are getting a lot of students from the 1. year this year, which is an absolute novelty, because the Erasmus programme itself says that you cannot send 1. year students, [...] Because they are either going to go in the second year, and they don't really want to go in the third year because that is risky, because they want to finish the third year in that year. [...] So it has made things really unpredictable. (I)

Then there have been issues with when students can go abroad due to the regulations of Erasmus where the student has to have passed the first year to be eligible for exchange:

... there were students who were thinking of applying in their 3rd year to go in the 4th year, but they are not going to be able to do it anymore. But can we have them as applicants if we don't even know if they are going to get into the second cycle? [...] So, we can't really prepare applications for these students because we don't know if they are going to go into the 3rd cycle. [...] So it has made it a bit complicated at that level (I).

This particular problem leads to the question of a change in mobility pattern in the future: "I think the institutions are now with the second cycle programme trying to attract the students and I think that in the future... that mobility will replace the Erasmus mobility (H)."

The issues with the shortened degrees at UiO is "also a little bit more difficult for the students, so many of them who maybe would have gone for one year before, they now maybe go only for a semester" (B). This seems to be one of the few issues still encountered there. According to the Vice Rector there seems to have been some problems implementing the new 3+2 structure at UiO in the beginning, and "we have lost something, it's not as good as it used to be. [...] it's not over, but it's, it's more calm now" (A), but at the same time something gained with the measures in learning outcome and grading system. The process itself seem to have changed, and now the focus is more on what is good education and what do students have to learn.

At UP there is the same issue, but with additional problems. The students “don’t have so much time to do the period of studies abroad, and the way the degree programmes are structured does not provide so many opportunities for them to go” (H):

I think the difficulties are related to having reduced the time, of length, of the period of studies, and the difficulties you have with the electives because as far as I know, the study programmes have been reduced because the electives are out (H).

... we used to send abroad the students that are studying in the advanced year of the course [...] find some kind of balance between the idea we have that we cannot send students abroad that are still entering university you know, because we want them to be a little bit more mature (F).

I think that many of the mobilities in some faculties have... impossible if we... we don’t have this anticipation of mobility for studying, we had some courses that have already students going out in the 3-year or even in the second semester of the second year. And this... didn’t happen before, mainly students that are in the final stages [...], in the fourth or five year of the old degree (G).

But not all programmes have this problem, in the case of engineering “In our own case there isn’t a problem” (J), except for the 3-year bachelor:

I truly think that this is going to cause a lot of damage in terms of these possibility, because students won’t have much chance to go, or if they go, and if things don’t go very well, they will lose a lot. (J)

Recognition difficulties and the Diploma Supplement

The recognition difficulties addressed at the interviews were all related to the institutional process. At UiO there were some problems with recognising studies, “that is one of the problems, but that was not better before Bologna, it’s a continuous problem, or challenge” (B), but “I don’t think the Bologna process has contributed to recognition, to better recognition process” (D). Due to potential difficulties with recognition, many students use their electives while abroad:

Many times not, so what they do here then is to use their kind of electives, we call it “Frie emner” in Norwegian, they take courses that are not compulsory for their degree when they go abroad, many times they do that, especially from humanities and social sciences. (B)

With regard to the Diploma Supplement, it was described in one sentence: “That was a... long process” (C). It does not seem to stand very strong at UiO, as at the same time it has been used since long before the Bologna reform:

I don't have any concrete experience with that, of course we do issue the diploma supplement, [...] I see the importance of it, it has to be there, but I can't tell you exactly what it has done to easy mobility for instance. (B)

the Diploma supplement is for the degree students, [...] I guess the Diploma supplement has worked, has had it's positive effects, we've had the Diploma supplement since way before the Bologna reform, (E)

UiO has not yet experienced whether or not it has been of importance to the students. It was however mentioned that the mobility students might have interest and use of a supplement explaining the grades and the ECTS, that would decrease some of the problems for instance American students have experienced coming home with B's and C's. Still, it is considered a work in progress, and the full review of it has still not been done.

According to the Faculty for Mathematical and Natural Science the Diploma Supplement is an old invention at UiO, and has been used for years, as a UN standardised letter. This is not seen as a part of internationalisation, but as something needed for a master's degree at a foreign institution. The translation of the courses is mentioned as a part of the Diploma Supplement, since the students went abroad to do masters or to work. At the Social Science Faculty the Diploma Supplement is said to have played a bigger part earlier, due to the explanation of our system when students went abroad. Both faculties have been using the Diploma Supplement for a long time before Bologna.

It seems likely Norwegian employers never think of this as an important factor, which implies that it has little to do with employability in Norway:

But the diploma supplement, it's in place, but I don't really know how, what effect it has had for the students who are given the diploma supplement, whether, I mean, for Norwegian employers, I don't think it matters much if they have one or not. (C)

The meaning of the Diploma Supplement in Norway has changed, "it's not so necessary with the Diploma supplement now, but in the past with the old degrees it was very important" (D). An interesting explanation of this is: "because the students they can get a, they are getting a bachelor degree, they can get English transcripts, so... they don't need an extra explanation of the degree system." (D)

It seems like not all the international students need or get the Diploma Supplement, according to the central administration officer in charge of mobility outside Europe; “the students that I deal with, they don’t get a diploma supplement, they just get a transcript” (C).

At UP the issues with recognition seem to be even more of an issue than in Norway:

But there is or there has been a very high concern with the equivalence and the credit transfer and all those issues that are difficult to handle, because it’s difficult to support students to have the same grades he had abroad, have the same grades at home (H).

Although on a very ideal level, the whole principle of ECTS as credits is substitute from a block of subjects with 13 ECTS credits for another, without looking exactly at content by content, this is the principle of the ECTS credits (I).

The Diploma Supplement is not seen to influence mobility according to the central administration officer, “the Diploma Supplement will make any difference on that, I think it’s another piece of bureaucracy” (H), and it is of fairly recent origin; “Yeah, the Diploma Supplement will only be issued to students graduating this year, so there’s just no way to answer that question” (I).

For the incoming students, mobility students, they are not having this document because they will receive it from their home institution. It is important to those who wants to come to have the full degree here. (G)

Still it seems likely the Diploma Supplement has some meaning, as it will show courses taken that are not recognised as a part of the degree:

... if it is possible for the professors to analyze situation and to see if they can consider of recognise this discipline, it’s okay, otherwise, can be an extra discipline or course that will be a extra curricula in the Diploma Supplement for example (G).

According to the international mobility coordinator for engineering, the Diploma supplement is “Not just a document no, it’s relevant” (J), so again there are different views on the topic.

Equality of programmes

Seems all the interviewees agree that the programmes are different in the different countries, but that this is not a big problem to exchange. At UiO ”some of the incoming students encounter problems like that, even within this harmonised system

which is not really completely harmonised” (C), “we try to be flexible, and most of the time our partners do too” (C):

... 90% or more of our bachelor programmes have cleared one semester for exchange, but we have still some programmes with difficulty, and that has to do with the structure of the programme, and the... for example free, electives we call it, how many electives are allowed in a programme, and how many mandatory subjects are there. [...] so many students are not following the standard structure of the programme, and then there could be... difficulties for those students. But for the students following the standard it's easy. (D)

This can be due to some students changing their programme during their studies, so the year they have done prior to the change is accepted as their electives, which naturally does not give any time to do exchange, since the electives are already “used up”. This again does not lead to flexibility and opportunity to change ones mind during a bachelor degree. Or that the last part of quotation relates to the 10% participating in programmes that has not been capable of clearing one semester for mobility:

The students should go abroad and take something else, something different, something quite different, but to do this, they have to, the programmes have to have a certain number of electives, subjects free to choose, so they can, because then they avoid this problem, they don't need to find similar programmes. (D)

This statement might refer to the 10% of the programmes that does not have free electives, or maybe to the fact that if the students manage to do their electives abroad, they do not have to worry about finding similar programmes abroad.

There are differences between the faculties too, something that probably makes an influence on the mobility of the students:

There are some... you know, all the students from the University of Oslo, they need to get a... their stay abroad pre-approved before they leave [...] So, the programmes don't match, and, and that's why some of the students at the faculty of mathematic and natural sciences for example, are hesitant when it comes to going abroad, but for others it's not a, a great challenge really. (C)

At UP “they still continue very different” (I). This is shown through the programmes sometimes “Situations where it's almost a copy, and other where it's, well, it's more peculiar” (J). This is not necessarily a problem “it's not necessary to be equal, it has to be similar in the approach of the thematic field of students are studying” (G) Others use the argument that lack of equality is just what should attract the students who should try something different, if not, why go abroad?

... but I don't think the programmes need to be equal to promote mobility. I think exactly the opposite. I think that if the programmes are different, if the students can get something different, he will go for that, and not for the equality. To have something equal he will stay, why go abroad if I can have the same? (H).

Another quite different view is that increased homogeneity is making mobility easier. However, the courses do not have to be quite equal:

I do not have the figures, but in general I think that there is today, the situation today is more homogenous all over Europe, so things are, were made easier to the students when they think about going where or when they think about coming to Portugal to study for a while in one of these countries in Europe (F).

Still, there are issues with the lack of equality, as the reduction of the course time makes it harder to find the appropriate subjects abroad, since they will have less time taking things over after the stay abroad.

Because when they have lots of options, if you [...?], and if they had one or two subjects to do it was okay, you know, fine, that will do it next year. Because you had time, had 4 years, and so on. So now there is this different perception about... cause the whole of 1.semester is absolutely compulsory for students in archaeology, they have no options (I).

Different attitudes in faculties

There seems to be some differences as to how the different faculties have approached and responded to the changes. This was very obvious at UiO, where these issues have had time to manifest themselves clearly. There seems to be smaller issues with the internationalisation at the faculty of Maths and Sciences than at some of the others. The programmes here do not seem to have changed much in reality, and is seen as a positive factor to the university:

... the bachelor degree is one semester shorter than the other one, but the sum, you know the bachelor and master, is, stays the same, 5 years at the faculty of maths and natural sciences. It's different at the faculty of humanities, because they had a 4 year lower degree, and a 2 year, they had 6 years, so they have lost 1 year. But we only have reduced total study time with, with... nothing. We had 3.5+ 1.5, now we have 3+2 (E).

I could say a lot of Bologna, but not in connection with internationalisation. No, I think Bologna and the ECTS has, has made wonders in giving us some tools and that is... you know, the... ECTS label, the Diploma supplement, the ECTS credits, and the... the need for information, the course description, the structure, the detailed structure makes it easy to access enough information to actually have mobility and exchange agreements (E).

“No, no it was, it was something that we actually had worked for, and so it became as an additional help, it came as a helping friend” (E). But this is not the only faculty where the Bologna seems to be implemented easily, according to the Vice-Rector, there are other success stories:

But we have some success stories, like in medicine, we have this 4 year in the professionalized full grade... medical profession, where we are, the 4th year we're receiving students and also sending students out, and the 4th year is about mother and child and birth, so... lots of students are now... getting knowledge about how Norway is dealing with the, all the medical problems connected to child and motherhood and giving birth and so on. [...] it's all in English. (A)

But there are also faculties that have some problems with participating in internationalisation:

The law faculty feel that it's... the students have to, to compare the consequences or what they gain from going abroad half a year or one semester or two semesters, but then they lose some of the... you know, they want to... to follow all the courses that the other students take, and they, in... their programme, if they go abroad, they lose some of the... then they have to choose between writing a thesis that is short or long, so... still there is some... they know more about the possibilities of going abroad... (A)

The Social Science department is less positive than the maths and sciences to the question if there are problems created by the reform:

yes and no, [...] very many students found it disappointing with the 3 year degree because they could only stay abroad for one semester, [...] if that is the success of Bologna, or if it's more the success of an international trend of mobility, that is not easy to give an answer to me, [...] new bachelor degrees, almost all of them have cleared one semester for exchange, that has made it more easy. [...] it has been easier for students to go abroad on formalised agreements, because we have more formalised agreements, we didn't have many in the past, they went abroad on their own, but of course they did that more and more (D).

The Vice-rector concludes with it being a change in approach towards the Bologna agreement in the later years, “So that's kind of consequences of the process, and people now start to see as positive” (A).

At UP there has been the problem of attendance and traditional lectures “This has been a big issue this semester” (I) at the arts and humanities. Other issues were:

... to prepare the mobility was quite confusing because dealing with new study plans, we couldn't follow any of the previous models, so there was a bit of an in definitions for a few months. (I)

There has also been the issue of not “encourage students to go with the first three years” (J), and they have had some issues with calculating credits; “we have to evaluate on a case by case situation, exactly how we going to do the evaluation of those students in the end” (J), at engineering, but other than that, “truth I don't see

that there is that much difference” (J). It can be interesting to note that the social science/ arts and humanities at both institutions seems to have more issues with the new system than maths and sciences/engineering have encountered.

Conclusion

Some of the ideals behind the Bologna agreement were to make mobility easier and increase employability all over Europe. Each nation was free to interpret the agreement as they chose, since there were no suggestions of how to change the system. And then the institutions made their changes according to their own interpretations. This seems to have made the educational area in Europe still quite diverse, since the interpretations were very different, as shown between Norway and Portugal.

The official Norwegian approach to internationalisation can be summed up with the words of the educational minister again: “do your country a favour, leave it, for a short while, and come back.” (E) There is no reason to doubt the Norwegian commitment to internationalisation, and to the Bologna agreement. What one can question is the performance, and implementation. There are often differences in ideas and reality, and even though the programmes have been created to open for a year abroad, there has to be a reason why Norwegian students participate to such a low level on exchanges and short term mobility agreements, and prefer the longer stays of full programmes abroad. This can be connected to Norwegian students wanting something very exotic, to the fact that Norwegians travel quite a bit as they do, and Europe is not considered exciting, or to the mere fact that most Norwegians are fluent in English, but have what we would consider, in comparison, low abilities of French, German and Spanish. But can this be an overly self-critical assumption that the students have? The issue of the decreased internationalisation of Norwegian students should also be addressed, as it had its peak in 2002, and the numbers have been going down slowly ever since the implementation of the Quality Reform.

In this context the shortening of the programmes can be addressed too, as the reduced time limits the time students can be delayed and still finish on time. Going out during the final year is brave, in case the students’ command of French and German is as bad as one thinks, and the success at the host-institution likely to fail. Going abroad during the 3rd or 4th semester may prove to be early and may not even have entered the minds of people who have just moved away from home.

Then there is the issue of the changes in the State Loan Fund, and the impact this has had upon the freedom of the students. The international participation can turn out to be a financial punishment to the individual if something goes wrong. The Norwegian government has given several incentives for internationalisation to the institutions, including financial incentives, but at the same time the financial opportunities for the students have been limited, as the State Loan Fund does not give full tuition-fee scholarships anymore. The students will also experience “punishment” through not receiving the approximately 40% scholarship if they fail the exams. This is a part of their loan that is changed into a scholarship if they pass their exams and finish in time.

The area most mentioned in Norway was the implementation of the Quality Reform, not the Bologna agreement. It seems like some actors at UiO do not really know what role the Bologna Reform played in the making of the Quality Reform, something that strengthens the notion of the Quality Reform being strictly top-down. It may seem like the actors had nothing to say in this matter, which is also supported by the Vice Rector, who states that it was a change forced on them, and the professors were negative to this form of top-down implementation. But what is a reform if the users of the institution are against it? Playing on team with the day-to-day users of the institution should be of utmost importance for successful implementation. Even though this seems to be better now, as there is a new big reform coming up, the efficiency of the reform could have been more noticeable if the academics and administrative staff were more positive and team-playing from the beginning.

In the case of Portugal the approach to internationalisation is very different. Like Norway, Portugal speaks a language minority in Europe, but the similarities seems to end there. Financial, historical and cultural backgrounds are very different, which one also can see in the approach to the area of higher education. Portuguese is the 4th most used language in the world. This means that there is a fairly large group of Portuguese speakers who would be a natural group to attract international students from. This seems to be somewhat of hindrance to participation in European mobility, as this to a large extent takes place in English. As stated by the Vice Rector at the University of Porto: “English, [...] the lingua franca”. Several of the interviewees from UP wanted to increase the courses offered in English, but most of them seemed to agree on this

being a difficult issue. It is, as in Norway, a question of culture and survival of language identity, even though the latter may be a bigger objection in Norway, as only approximately 4.7 million people speak Norwegian on world basis.

Finances is also an issue here, but in Portugal there seems to be few financial incentives to participate in internationalisation on the institutional level, as well as the students meeting financial problems when going to more expensive countries outside Portugal. If Portugal wants to participate in international mobility within Europe, and do the investments needed to do so, they have to make the institutions eager to participate. One means to achieve this is through financial incentives, which may prove a problem due to strained finances.

At institutional level one of the most interesting findings in this research was the difference between the faculties, more than the differences between the institutions. Central administration in both countries seemed to be fairly positive, and to agree on this being a process and something to be dealt with, and that it would be easier as time passed by. The big disagreements were between the Arts and Humanities/ Social Sciences and Engineering/ Maths and Natural sciences. There seems to be a big difference of opinion between the hard sciences and the soft, in both countries and institutions. This is of great interest, and would be worth looking further into. It seems like the hard sciences were less affected by the reform than the soft ones, as they more or less kept the same progress in their programmes as they had before the reform.

There is not only one way to implement a reform, and the Bologna agreement did not have any suggestions to implementation of the agreement. Each country was free to interpret and implement according to its own needs and wishes. This may have led to a bigger difference between nations than what was wished for. But there is no doubt that culture, history, language, etc. are all important factors of education in most countries, and therefore a part of national identity. One can see the differences between Norway and Portugal in the way they implemented the agreement; Norway had a strict top-down implementation and it was not necessarily heavily debated, in Portugal this has been a discussion for years, and even the students participated. These different approaches led to different implementations as well.

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University of Oslo:

<http://www.uio.no/>

Abbreviations

CD-ESR	The Committee for Higher Education and Research
COMETT	EU programme for university-industry cooperation
DELTA	EU Research and Development Programme
DG	Director General
EEC	European Economic Community
EC	European Commission
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
ENIC-NARIC	European Network of Information Centres- National Academic Recognition Information Centre
ERASMUS	Action programme under SOCRATES for higher education
FCT	Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPEARI	Office for planning, Strategy, Assessment and International Relations
GRICES	The Portuguese Office for International Relations in Science and Higher Education, responsible for directing, guiding and co-ordinating all international co-operation in science and technology. (Gabinete de Relações Internacionais da Ciência e do Ensino Superior)
HE	Higher Education
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IT	Information Technology
LEONARDO	action programme for the implementation of a vocational training policy
LINGUA	Teaching and learning of languages (EU programme)
NOKUT	Norwegian Agency of Quality Assurance in Education
NORPLUS	The Nordplus Framework Programme offers financial support to a variety of educational cooperation between partners in the area of lifelong learning from the eight participating countries in the Baltic and Nordic regions.
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PALOP	African countries with Portuguese as official language (Países Africanos de Língua Oficial Portuguesa)
PETRA	EU programme for vocational training
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
R & D	Research & Development
SOCRATES	Action programme for education funded by the EU, consisting of eight actions
TIC	The programme for electronic government that promotes the use of ICT in public services
UiO:	University of Oslo (Universitetet i Oslo)
UMIC	Agency for the Knowledge Society
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UP	University of Porto (Universidade do Porto)
US	United States of America
UK	United Kingdom