for international careers, create a global presence for the university, develop global partnerships, increase the number of students going abroad, and help students challenge their perceptions. Their choice of country reflects their passion for a particular region or country.

**Trends and Trade-Offs**

Graduate-level study abroad is becoming increasingly common and an important means of internationalizing higher education. As evident from the Graduate Learning Experiences and Outcomes study, in the United States, study abroad at the graduate level tends to be small groups of graduate students led by faculty for no more than three or four weeks. The short length of time in the host country shapes the types of opportunities that are possible. When programs are structured so that the group always travels together and stays in hotels or tourist lodging, the opportunity to challenge one’s perspective may be limited. While this arrangement may limit immersion by participants in the host culture, it does provide a 24/7 “within group” experience that may be very powerful personally and professionally for the participating graduate students. The potential for deep learning is magnified when participants in these groups represent different disciplines and nationalities.

In the United States, many professional schools and graduate programs are creating international experiences that range from short-term, faculty-led programs, independent study, and research, to joint and dual degree programs.

**Future Research**

But what makes study abroad a graduate-level experience? Why should graduate programs bother with creating and implementing such experiences for their students? While professional development and global learning seem laudable outcomes for these programs, they alone do not seem to set graduate study abroad apart from undergraduate study abroad. Given the numbers of programs and students becoming involved, we need to know more about what distinguishes these activities as graduate level experiences. Research is needed to understand how these experiences contribute to graduate-level preparation, and how academic content and the disciplines might influence learning outcomes associated with these experiences. We need to know more about how growing numbers of international students participating in these programs are influencing the nature of the learning derived by all students. Finally, we need to know more about individual (versus group) experiences and international graduate study, comparatively, around the world. The individual research approach is prominent in many educational systems and we may gain valuable knowledge through learning how other countries structure such postgraduate work.

**Conclusion**

Graduate study-abroad experiences should compliment and deepen the learning that occurs within a student’s graduate program. But what are the indicators of such experiences? How might we know if graduate study-abroad programs are truly achieving such outcomes or whether they are simply extensions of faculty-led short-term study-abroad programs at the undergraduate level? Given the dramatic changes on the horizon for graduate education, how might programs use international experiences to address the needs arising from these changes? Our work raises more questions than it provides answers, but hopefully these findings will provide the basis for an engaging exploration of the aims and scope of study abroad at the graduate level.

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**Introduction: Historical Perspective on Contemporary Issues**

**Adam Nelson, Coordinator**

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“In the spring of 2013, the Worldwide Universities Network (WUN) commissioned a report to help university leaders think about the future of higher education. The network asked: what would the landscape of international higher education look like a generation from now? What challenges and opportunities lay ahead for universities, especially “global” research universities? In response, I convened a group of prominent historians from around the world to consider how universities in the past responded to major historical change. Specifically, I asked each to write a brief essay—identifying a “key moment” in the internationalization of higher education: a moment, when universities
The Research University in Brazil: 1930 and 2030

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Brazil was one of the last countries in the Americas to develop higher education. As late as 1920, 400 years after the first Portuguese villages were founded in colonial Brazil, the country had not yet developed a comprehensive university. It was well behind other countries in the Americas—like Canada, the United States, and most of the former Spanish colonies—which had universities dating back to the colonial era. Brazil was not alone among former Portuguese colonies, though: Lusophone Africa, particularly Angola and Mozambique, had to wait until 1962 before the first universities were established; and only after independence, in the mid-1970s, those institutions actually started to develop more fully.

The first university to be established in Brazil with a clear research mission was the University of São Paulo, in 1934. In just 80 years since then, Brazil has developed a relatively large and sophisticated system of universities and other types of higher education institutions, of which about 100 are public universities (federal and state). This system is the source of most of the research performed and graduate degrees granted in Brazil, attracting growing numbers of students—from all over the Americas, from Lusophone Africa, from Europe, and from Eastern countries such as China and South Korea. The University of São Paulo itself has the largest international student body in Brazil, with over 1,300 graduate students from all over the world (2012), most of them (1,042 students) from Latin American countries, but also including groups from Angola (16 students) and Mozambique (28 students).

1930

As 1930 approached, Brazil was changing considerably, economically, and politically. Since 1889, when the political system changed to a republic, power had been shared between São Paulo, due to its role as main coffee producer and its nascent industry; and Minas Gerais, a state that had been an important political player since the colonial times, due to its mining industry (gold/minerals). By the 1920s, the Brazilian coffee industry had begun to decay, due to falling prices and international competition; and the financial markets’ crisis of 1929 and its consequences had a very disrupting effect on a system already under severe stress. Those effects included a disruption of the democratic system, when the results of the 1930 presidential elections were contested and the losing coalition was the one that actually took power, at the end of that year.

The University of São Paulo is born

Right after the change of government, new laws established the blueprint for future universities, putting forward rules that would determine the development of Brazilian higher education for the next 30 years. A new university was planned to be established in Rio de Janeiro (then the country’s capital), with 328 legal articles that detailed the new institution including courses it would offer. The era of the relative decentralized development of higher education of the early republican period was over, for good. Brazil would now follow a centralized model, similar to those of France and Italy.

São Paulo, which by 1932 had already led a failed revolt against the federal government, calling for a new constitution (a promise of the new rulers), took a very different approach. Júlio de Mesquita Filho—publisher of the most important newspaper in São Paulo—argued that only by becoming the country’s intellectual leader would the state regain its dominance. The state’s governor, Armando Oliveira, was thus convinced to start a modern research university in the state’s capital.

Fernando de Azevedo, who had worked earlier on a project commissioned by Mesquita about modern universities, quickly developed a plan for the new institution, and, within weeks, the University of São Paulo was founded (January, 1934). In contrast to the very detailed federal law, the new university’s founding document was just 54 articles long and proposed a liberal and decentralized structure for the new institution. The first item of the second article, which established the mission of the university, is very clear: it should “promote the advancement of science by means of research.” Thus, Azevedo recruited intellectuals and scientists from Europe to form the university’s faculty—among them scholars like Fernand Braudel and Claude Lévy-Strauss, who would become leaders in their