Strategies for Higher Education in a Global Context

Ana Bela Bravo

Portuguese Military Academy, Lisbon, Portugal

Research Center of the Military Academy, Lisbon, Portugal

Center for Spatial and Organizational Dynamics of the Algarve University, Algarve, Portugal

António Joaquim Serralheiro

Portuguese Military Academy, Lisbon, Portugal

Research Center of the Military Academy, Lisbon, Portugal

INESC-ID, Lisbon, Portugal

The growth of internationalization of higher education, both in developed and in emergent countries is a result of globalization. In spite of the growing literature on higher education, results from the process of internationalization, its benefits and risks, have not been widely discussed. Studies of different internationalization strategies and comparative analysis are also scarce. This paper contributes, on the one hand, towards, a reflexion on those topics by reviewing literature on the evolution of strategies and suggesting guidelines for a national strategy for Higher Education (HE); on the other hand, by analysing recent data, compares the scope of high education internationalization among European and other countries. There has been an evolution from mobility of students and staff towards transnationalization of courses and services/products from higher education institution (HEI). Global surveys point to different approaches to internationalization and different results and perceptions. The view that internationalization is a condition for high performance of higher education institutions and national competitiveness does not appear to be clearly supported by evidence.

Keywords: internationalization, transnationalization, higher education, Europe, Portugal, strategies

Introduction

Higher education institutions (HEIs) have been facing increasing competition due to globalization, which is reflected in the publication of international rankings in various dimensions of their activity. Internationalization is a process that comprehends the policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions—and even individuals—to cope with the global academic environment. The motivations for

internationalization include commercial advantage, knowledge and language acquisition, enhancing the curriculum with international content, and many others (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

Throughout history, the universities have always had some international dimension (UE, 2015), either in the concept of universal knowledge and related research, or in the movement of students and scholars. However, the international dimension of higher education has changed over the centuries. Nowadays, the phenomenon of internationalisation of higher education that has emerged over the last 25 years is rooted in several manifestations of increased mobility but also in research and teaching.

Throughout the 90's, most developed countries have introduced reforms centred on performance monitoring of universities and quality enhancement systems. More recently, the worldwide expanding knowledge economy has showed that economic development depends crucially on an educated and skilled workforce and on technological improvements, thus, pressing universities to adjust and increase their contribution. "A well-performing higher education system contributes to national competitiveness if it is oriented towards knowledge-based businesses rather than merely implementing old-fashioned corporate models" (OECD, 2013, p. 17). Internationalization on the part of HEI has been regarded as a way to achieve this aim. However, this view does not appear to be supported by evidence from empirical comparative studies.

In spite of the growing literature, the effect of globalization upon higher education national systems on individual countries, as well as in developing countries, may need further studies (Farhan, 2012). The publication of studies and statistics on higher education by international organizations, such as the OECD, UNESCO, the European Commission (through DG EAC), IAU (International Association of Universities) and World Bank, has been important in disseminating research on HE in both western and non-western countries and promoting good practices in internationalization and quality issues. The IAU produces regular global surveys that are very useful to analyse the evolution in universities' performance and higher education policies across the world; it joins 630 HEI and several regional and national associations.

The results from global surveys have highlighted both the opportunities and risks from internationalization and also the need for changes in HEI and of international collaboration to meet the challenges. Consequently, IAU has produced policy statements—the third IAU statement (2012) is: "Affirming Academic Values in Internationalization of Higher Education: A Call for Action".

The respondents of the global survey referred the following risks: (a) international opportunities will be available only to students with access to financial resources; (b) the difficulty of local regulation of the quality of foreign programs (13% respondents selected this as their top risk), and by excessive competition among HEIs; (c) the commodification of education; (d) the unequal sharing of benefits of internationalization among partners, for instance "brain drain"; (e) growing gaps between HEIs within the country.

Higher education in emergent countries has expanded, as reflected in the increasing number of journals published, mainly in Asia and India. Following the conclusions of Weiler (2008), the analysis of the content of the majority of journals on HE enables the identification of three "centers of gravity" (main topics) of research on HE: (1) equity of access to universities and employability (transition to the labour market); (2) institutional analysis and governance; (3) programmes and quality. The literature shows that internationalization has often been presented as a way to achieve other objectives of HEI, such as a source of income, or as a key to promote quality and academic performance, and not as an aim in itself. However, this view has been changing.

The main aim of this paper is to analyse the trend in the evolution of university strategies of internationalization. The contribution of our study is to identify the main guidelines of a national strategy for

the HE system that may take advantage of the opportunities presented by growing mobility and cooperation within the European Union and with emergent countries. Such as in the English speaking countries, in the case of Portuguese universities there are opportunities to expand the existing cooperation with other Portuguese-speaking countries, such as Brazil, Angola, and Mozambique. Therefore, the main aims of this communication are: (a) to understand the recent trend in HE strategies of internationalization; (b) to present some strategic directions to the development of tertiary education in EU countries, particularly in Portugal, taking into account the opportunities from internationalization.

The central research question is thus twofold: (1) How has the process of internationalization of HE evolved? (2) Can one identify various strategies of internationalization?

As to the methods, documentary analysis is used, critically reviewing recent studies on this topic, worldwide. Relevant data on mobility of students in Europe and worldwide was also gathered. The paper is organized as follows: This section is an introduction to this topic and sets the methodology used; Section 2 presents a brief review of the literature on internationalization of higher education and discusses strategies to face the process; Section 3 analyses the scope of mobility of students in Europe, and Portugal in particularly; Section 4 presents some guidelines for the development of national strategic objectives that will enable the universities and other HEI to adjust to the needs of the labour market and to contribute to national competitiveness; Section 5 draws some conclusions in order to answer the research questions.

Strategies of Internationalization of Higher Education: Literature Review

Motivations for Internationalization

In the intensely competitive global environment, every nation's economic progress is increasingly determined by the quality of its national education and innovation systems. Higher education's mission—teaching, research, and engagement with the wider community—is central to economic development. Internationalization of universities is a way of responding and adapting to the challenges of globalization and its effects on the economy, labour market, and society as a whole (Rudzki, 1995). Knight (2010) groups the motivations to internationalize in for classes: socio-cultural, economic, political, and academic. The most mentioned are: (a) to improve its status on rankings; (b) to encourage personnel development in order to build a more educated work-force (particularly in emergent countries); (c) to foster excellence in outcomes; (d) to promote mutual understanding; (e) to adjust to increasing in migration of skilled workers in a globalised economy; (f) to generate additional revenues to HEI.

Huisman and Burnett (2010) argue that HEI strategies of internationalization are strongly influenced by their organizational culture, but also, by the growth in the demand for studying abroad, as well as other economic driving forces. As OECD (2004, p. 1) concluded:

> Higher education has become increasingly international in the past decade as more and more students choose to study abroad, enrol in foreign educational programmes and institutions in their home country, or simply use the Internet to take courses at colleges or universities in other countries.

Often, internationalization has not been regarded as an aim in itself, but rather as an instrument to pursue higher quality of learning and research and to restructure programmes (Van der Wende, 1997; Qiang, 2003). This view is consistent with the reforms of HE that were inspired on the objectives of new public management (NPM), that may be resumed as:

> The modelling of national systems as economic markets; government-steered competition between institutions (…) incentives to link with business and industry; performance measures and output based funding; and relations with funding agencies and managers based on quasi-corporate forms such as contracts, accountability and audit. (Marginson & Van der Wende, 2007, p. 8)

This has been the case of the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, much of Eastern Europe and Asia, and also in developing countries where reforms in higher education have been supported by World Bank programs.

However, in many developed nations and in the emerging nations such as China, India, Singapore, and Malaysia, the reforms are often motivated by desires for global competitiveness but generated from within the nation. Internationalization has been a key criterion in the majority of university rankings, pressuring HEI to become more entrepreneurial (Anderseck, 2004), universities have started to consider internationalization as a viable source of competitive advantage. Nevertheless, as Ovidiu-Niculae and Borza (2013) concluded from a study of internationalization of HE in Romania, there are big differences among higher education institutions in terms of how they perceive the process of internationalization, even the colleges that are part of the same university showed different approaches towards internationalization.

From Internationalization to a Global Paradigm

It is difficult to find a universal definition of internationalization of HE. Knight (2010, p. 7) presented a concise one as "the process of integration of an international, intercultural or global dimension in the aims, functions or activities in the provision of higher education". That is also the view of the European Association for International Education (EAIE). Ebuchi (1990), quoted by Knight and De Wit (1995), refers to internationalization as a process, which takes into account the three basic functional dimensions of HEI—learning, research, and provision of services, and transforms them to become international and compatible with other cultures (multicultural).

Therefore, the internationalization of HE has been strongly related to mobility of students and activities (Teichler, 2004), whilst globalization represents border elimination, hence, opening the scope for transnational education (TNE).

According to UNESCO (2001), a definition of the concept of transnational education (TNE) includes "all types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based".

It implies that the HEI changed their processes, syllabus, research, and services, i.e., becoming international (Knight & de Wit, 1995). The international dimension of higher education began to move from the incidental and individual into organised activities, projects, and programmes, based on political rationales and driven more by national governments than by higher education itself' (Wit & Merkx, 2012). In fact, there is a tendency to view some universities as global institutions if their activities range from:

- the mobility of and competition for students, teachers, and scholars;
- export of academic systems and cultures;
- research cooperation;
- knowledge transfer and capacity building;
- student and staff exchange;
- internationalisation of the curriculum and of learning outcomes and cross-border delivery of programmes, projects, and institutions;

- the importance of networks and consortia in HE across the globe;
- virtual mobility, digital learning and collaborative online international learning.

Chesterman (2009) stated that higher education has moved through international to transnational and now to global paradigms. In the case of Law,

> Transnationalization saw the world as a patchwork, with greater need for familiarity across jurisdictions and hence a growth in exchanges and collaborations; globalization is now seeing the world as a web in more ways than one, with lawyers needing to be comfortable in multiple jurisdictions. (p. 1)

The transformations identified in the teaching of Law have been led, first, by the profession, as changes in the way law is practiced have necessitated a change in the way in which it is taught. Therefore, globalization has impacted upon the skills demanded in the labour markets and the education system must adjust. The content of the basic degree syllabus will continue to emphasize the traditional subjects, but faculties will seek ways to ensure that their graduates are both intellectually and culturally flexible, capable of adapting not merely to new approaches but to new realities. Comparative and international subjects will receive greater emphasis, with comparative and international perspectives also being introduced to a wider range of subjects.

> There will be resistance, but not for long; at least some international experience will increasingly be seen as essential to the practice of law, economics, or finance leading more faculties to offer exchange and double degree programs. Early collaborations were transatlantic, but in future, the focus on Asia will continue, recognizing the important role that Asia now plays in economic terms. A second locus will be the Gulf countries, offering enormous financial resources but less conducive to genuine partnership. (Chesterman, 2009, p. 888)

Therefore, it is likely that, in the long term, traditional student mobility will be substituted by study-programme mobility as more transnational programmes are offered. Most of this growth is likely to be outside Western Europe (Central and Eastern Europe and emergent countries, mainly, China, Malaysia, and India).

In a system where HEIs have great autonomy and government acts as a regulator of a competitive "market" and ensures quality, internationalization is a strategy whereby HEIs use their comparative advantages to explore the opportunities offered by a global context. Competition among HEIs and the development of performance evaluation, produced international rankings, However, Marginson and van der Wende (2007) and Rauhvargers (2011), among others, note that international rankings are often controversial as they should not compare institutions as a whole but rather its components or its different outcomes separately. Internationalization of HE is a multi-dimensional phenomenon and to obtain detailed information may be a difficult task, as Veiga (2012) found out in her efforts to elaborate an index of internationalization for the Portuguese HEI.

The results from global surveys have highlighted both the opportunities and risks from internationalization and also the need for changes in HEI and of international collaboration to meet the challenges. Consequently, IAU has produced policy statements—the third IAU statement (2012) is: "Affirming Academic Values in Internationalization of Higher Education: A Call for Action". There have been identified through global surveys the following risks: (a) international opportunities will be available only to students with access to financial resources; (b) the difficulty of local regulation of the quality of foreign programs; (c) excessive competition among HEIs; (d) the commodification of education; (e) the unequal sharing of benefits of internationalization among partners, for instance "brain drain"; (f) growing gaps between HEIs within the country.

The survey concluded that, in general, countries and universities are now becoming more proactive in broadening the scope of their international activities and developing relations with other world regions.

Cooperation is also understood as a means to compete and internationalisation is increasingly seen as an essential part of the institutional mission. There is a general tendency for universities to develop a more strategic approach to internationalisation, the majority responded to have a strategy or are developing ones.

The Evolution of Strategies for Internationalization

Internationalisation of HE in Europe emerged as both a process and a strategy (EU, 2015). The European programmes for research and education, in particular the Erasmus programme in the second half of the 1980s, were the driver for a stronger strategic approach to internationalisation in higher education, similar to the Fulbright programme in the US after the Second World War. The Erasmus programme itself was built out of smaller initiatives that had been introduced in Germany and Sweden in the 1970s and an European pilot programme followed since the early 1980s. In 1980 the Thatcher Government introduced full-cost fees for international students (non-EU members) and the main focus of British universities became international student recruitment for income generation. Australia and other English-speaking countries followed a similar model. In Europe, the Bologna Process (1999) aimed at facilitating mobility within the European space by defining the required learning outcomes for each level of higher education and organizing syllabus in curricular units valued in terms of credits. This aimed at making European qualifications more transparent and comparable, and thus more competitive. Since the Bologna Process and the European Union's Lisbon Strategy (2000), which set out to make Europe the most competitive knowledge-based society in the world, competitiveness has increasingly become a driving rationale for HE. In that sense, both the government and higher education institutions in the UK and in Australia have recognised the importance of employability in a globally connected world, and are paying more attention to short-term study abroad and internationalisation of the curriculum and learning outcomes for their own students (EU, 2015).

Internationalization is an incremental process of decision-making, whereby institutions can adapt to the unknown, given an uncertain environment, and experience knowledge as a valuable resource (Johanson & Vahlne, 2003). The implementation of a strategy by an HEI is difficult because it has to coordinate international activities by the individual researchers, their department, their faculty. Rudzki (2000) uses a fractal model to accommodate for that in the implementation of a strategy of internationalization.

Knight and De Wit (1995) argue that the process of internationalization is a continuous cycle and not a static linear process and suggest an institutional cycle for the integration of the international dimension in the culture and the systems of an HEI. He identifies six levels of internationalization, each one generating a flux of information. More recently, Knight (2010) characterizes the four dimensions that the strategies of internationalization must contemplate: (1) mobility and extracurricular activities; (2) the international relations to include international partnerships and networks for search and learning; (3) the syllabus and knowledge-learning systems. The evolution may be analysed in stages, or levels of internationalization, where mobility of students is the focus of a "primary" level, as shown in Figure 1. Those stages may follow sequentially or simultaneously, depending on the strategy of the HEI.

There is no single strategy or unique model of internationalisation, nor should there be. Jane Knight, in OECD (2014) has also identified three "generations" of international universities, which are very similar to the characterization shown in Figure 1. There are variations within each group. The 1st generation is an internationalised university with a diversity of international partnerships, international students and staff, and multiple collaborative activities. This is the most common type and reflects the internationalisation process of

universities in countries around the world. The 2nd generation includes universities that have established satellite offices in different countries of the world in the form of branch campuses, research centres, and management/project offices. The 3rd and most recent generation of international universities is new, stand-alone institutions co-founded or co-developed by two or more partner institutions from different countries. The 3rd generation institutions are the newest form of international university, that stage implies transnational educational activities, the HIE is, thus a global institution. OECD (2014) analyses these, providing examples as well as identifying a number of issues and challenges related to this new type of international university.
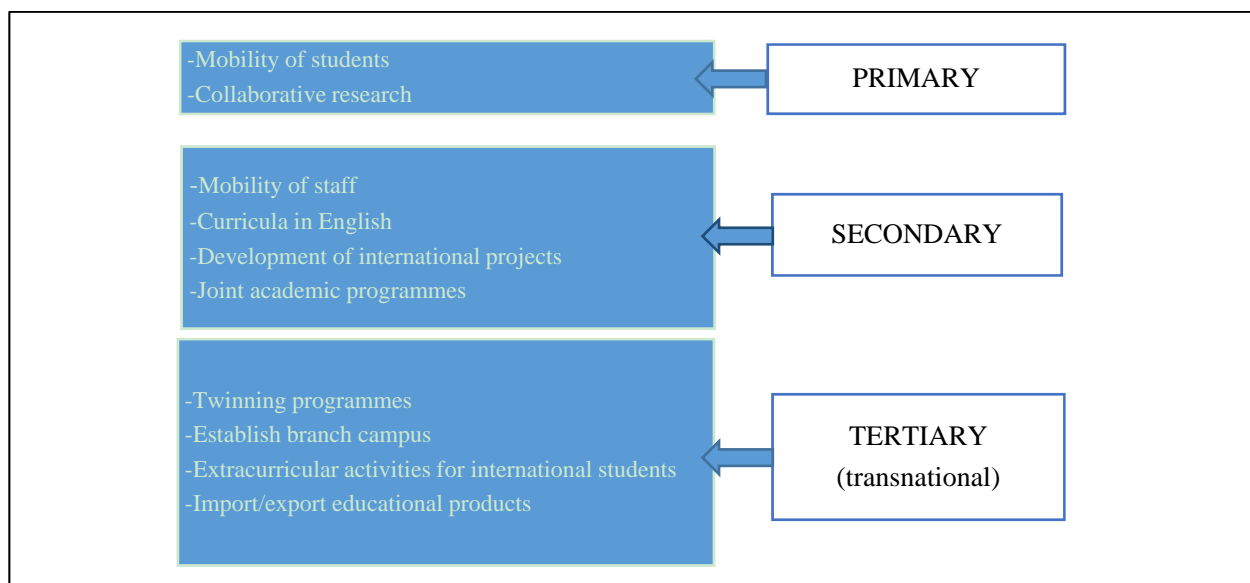

Figure 1. Levels/stages of internationalization. Source: Based on Knight and De Wit (1995).

It is important to understand the role of culture, language, strategic planning, and leadership in implementing HE's strategies. It is also important to ensure that global and local responsibilities are aligned. In the European Union, a Mobility Scoreboard has been produced by Eurydice—an European Network for HE joining 38 countries, to support the European Commission by providing a framework for monitoring progress made by European countries in promoting, and removing obstacles to, learning mobility as it will impact on the quality of mobility. In 2016 most of the EU countries showed good performance in the Quality (Indicator 7) with Italy, Sweden, Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia scoring very good performance whilst Ireland, Denmark, and the Flemish community registering little progress (https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/en/mobility-scoreboard).

The IAU 4th Global Survey showed that 53% of the respondent HEIs have elaborated internationalization policy/strategy and 22% that one is in preparation, while 16% indicate that internationalization forms part of the overall institutional strategy. And 66% of the respondents report having explicit targets and benchmarks to assess their internationalization policy implementation (Egron & Hudson, 2014). The most frequently assessed areas of internationalization are international student enrollment, outbound student mobility and partnerships. In some countries, government reforms of the HE system have incorporated an international dimension for the future development of HE.

Mobility of Students in a Comparative Analysis

The United Kingdom (England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland) is the biggest European country

for foreigner students (OECD, 2013). In fact, 13% of the worldwide higher education students (HS) studying abroad were attending HEI in the UK. Only the USA had a higher percentage of foreign students (17%). Australia accounted for 6% and Canada for 5%. Therefore, one may conclude that 41% of the worldwide students do prefer to study in English-speaking countries, which somehow contrasts with the high tuition fees in practice in those host countries. In Europe, the UK is the primary destination for the higher education students abroad (HSA). However, the total number of HSA is constantly increasing since, at least, the year 2000, even with a slow pace in the UK (Table A in Appendix 1). According to HESA (2016), since 2012, there is a downhill trend in the total number of higher education home students (HS) in the UK. In 2014, almost 20% of all HS come from outside the UK. As to foreign students there has been less from Pakistan, India, Saudi Arabia, and Thailand. Just as a comparison. As to the country of origin, in the UK two thirds of international students come from China, and other Asian nations; only around one third from Europe, America, and other (Table A in Appendix 1). Note that the growth in the number of students from Asia and India shows a down trend, may be as a result of the offer of HE courses in those areas, partly from branches of European universities.

Table 1

Strategic and Operational Aims for HE

1. Enhance quality to adjust syllabus to the needs of labour market, economy, society	1.1 Improve the quality of the education, develop skills on students that enable them to address national and international problems, more job opportunities, and to contribute to a higher competitive society; 1.2 Adjust curricula and learning to the demand of skills in the labour market and adapt to global issues and multi-culture contexts; 1.3 Increase the standards of research and identify key selected domains in which national R&D can make an impact on the international stage, while sustaining research excellence across a broad base of disciplines; 1.4 Ensure open engagement of HEI with their community and wider society in order to enhance flexibility in their response to the changing needs of the economy and society.
2. Increase the international dimension of HEI activities	2.1 Create collaborative teaching and international research programs; 2.2 Promote faculty and staff development in international knowledge and skills (international curriculum and academic programs); 2.3 Increase mobility from PALOP, create foreign admission offices; 2.4 Internationalisation of the contents of study programs, for example an increasingly international aspect of curricula; 2.5 Increase partnerships and networking with international HEI; 2.6 Attract students, resources and talent, while reducing risks from internationalization (brain drain, commercialization of education).
3. Promote research at the highest standards	3.1 Increase investment in research (R&D represents 1.5% GDP in 2012, the EU target is 3%), define investment priorities in selected areas; 3.2 Increase transfer of technology to business and other sectors; 3.3 Invest in communication technological resources (i.e., websites) professional training in HE; 3.4 Continue developing international programs to support highly trained graduates and PhD students, producing new knowledge and innovative solutions; 3.5 Develop research-led teaching and learning.
4. Good governance and sustainability	4.1 Update the strategic vision every 4-5 years for the national HE; 4.2 Promote best practices in governance and management of HEI, to increase efficiency and accountability; 4.3 Provide more coherence and greater coordination of processes and operations in subsystems, throughout the HE system and its financing; 4.4 Recurrent grant allocation for all HEIs based on the current unit cost model; 4.5 Consider introducing a contractual relationship or service level agreement between the state and the higher education institutions to align outcomes with financing and quality evaluation; 4.6 Develop methods and indicators of institutional performance and elaborate evaluation reports yearly; 4.7 Promote the elaboration of a strategic vision and plan by all HEIs; 4.8 Increase applications to project funding and research financing.

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Although, in the UK, there is not a national wide strategy program towards student mobility, unlike other countries, such as Germany or France (EC, 2013), it is a fact that their higher-level institutions do seriously approach and follow mobility policies, attracting international students as a source of revenue.

The degree of internationalization in other European countries has a smaller scope, such as in the Portuguese HE system, is quite small, as the number of international students represent 7.1% in 2015, according to HESA (2016), with mobility within the EU representing only 2.4%. Veiga (2012) has estimated an index of internationalization for a sample the public universities and technologic institutes, in order to produce a national ranking; the degree of internationalization is higher in the largest universities of Oporto and Lisbon—Porto University, UTL, and University of Lisbon, which occupied the top 3 ranks, but also in UTAD (University of Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro). Alves (2013) shows that among the international students, the majority come from Brazil or other Portuguese speaking countries, but also from the EU. Her analyses focus on the case study of ISCTE-IUL (Instituto Universitário de Lisboa)—one of the largest universities where the ratio of foreign to national studies is over the average (17.5%). Some ISCTE graduate courses take place in campus abroad: (1) management in China; (2) management in Brazil; (3) management in Mozambique (Gabinete de Relações Internacionais, ISCTE-IUL, 2012). Those figures indicate that internationalization of the Portuguese HE has already reached the secondary level, although in a small scope.

Mendes (2011) analysed another case-study and developed a strategy of international branding and marketing for the Catholic University (Portugal) based on Porter's (1991) model. Although both the national and global markets for higher education are not perfectly competitive, but rather of monopolistic competition, this approach suits the Catholic University or other large private universities; but it seems to be not so adequate for most of the Portuguese HEIs, particularly the public ones.

National Strategic Guidelines for HE

As referred in the Introduction, the main contribution of our study is to suggest a particular strategic formulation for a national HE system, in which, the increase in internationalization is one of the aims. National strategies are important to guide each HE institution in the implementation of its own strategy as the alignment with national priorities may ensure global coherence and greater value for society.

International cooperation between IES has resulted mainly from the individual commitment of IES. However, their agents may improve the system of cooperation if it is structured by governments (for instance, based on bilateral agreements); it must rely on a common strategy, management methods and a capacity for negotiation that is able to conciliate competition and cooperation.

The progress in international collaboration and in mobility has become one of the required items for performance evaluation of universities. In most of EU countries, government strategies for HE may be quite relevant in the near future. That was the case of the UK and it was the option taken by the Irish government in its strategic plan for 2030. This has inspired the formulation of a similar plan for a country, such like Portugal, which is similar in size and economic structures, such as Portugal. A vision for the future of higher education that assumes that internationalization matters may be presented as follows:

In the next two or three decades, higher education will have to increase value to stakeholders and society. Higher quality of teaching and research, good governance, and internationalization can play a central role in economic recovery and national competitiveness, as well as in social and cultural progress.

By increasing research (approaching the EC target of 3% of GDP), attaining international top—standards and focus investment on prioritized selective areas, universities will produce greater impact on the increase in R&D and innovation directed towards business competition and on academic excellence (qualify staff and better syllabus) and higher quality of teaching-learning processes.

In any strategic plan, the first step is to analyse the contexts, deriving both challenges and opportunities. Strategic plans for HE have been used in the Anglo-Saxon countries over the last two decades. In the report that prepared the Irish Plan for HE 2030, the environment is characterized as such:

> (...) the number of people entering the system is growing and the profile of students is changing. Unemployment and changing patterns of work bring new urgency and a much greater emphasis on lifelong learning and up skilling. A high proportion of the skills that are needed now in the workforce are high-order knowledge-based skills, many of which can be acquired only in higher education institutions. The importance of high quality research to the teaching mission…to widen participation to include those previously excluded, to leverage the traditionally high value placed on education, to get ready for the job opportunities that will come with economic recovery, and to deliver knowledge and learning of lasting cultural and social significance. (p. 4)

As a matter of fact, this characterization works well also for Portugal, which is a similar country in size and shares the post-Bologna framework of HE.

Our aim is to design a national strategic orientation for HE that may structure HEI strategies and align them with national priorities in order to increase their contribution to the economy and the value to society in general.

Strategic Guidelines for 2020

Bravo, Santos, and Vaz (2012) presented a set of strategic aims for the Portuguese HE in the medium term but, the context has changed. After 2006 most HEIs were adjusting to the Bologna reform in Europe, restructuring cycles of study, promoting lifelong-learning, and adopting international standards of quality. At present, national HE systems face the need to adjust to the challenges of the post-sovereign debt crises, particularly in the face of financial restrictions and greater pressures for reinforcing collaborative teaching and research and increasing the international dimension of its activities. Internationalization implies taking advantage of competitive advantages but, entrepreneurial approaches should not overshadow the commitment of HEI to strengthen academic values, as the IAU points out: "academic freedom and institutional autonomy, accountability, institutional responsibility and effectiveness and the ideal of knowledge made accessible to all through collaboration, solidarity and improved access to higher education" (Egron & Hudson, 2014, p. 3).

In order to accomplish the vision sated above, one may aggregate policy recommendations according to five strategic aims which are listed in the 1st column of Table 1: (1) enhance quality and adjust syllabus; (2) increase the international dimension; (3) promote research at the highest standards; (4) good governance and sustainability.

Note that the four selected aims are interdependent. For instance, the curricula and teaching-learning processes must be changed in line with the aim of both quality and internationalization, in order to offer students a broad international knowledge and strong intercultural, social, and communication skills, in addition to the more traditional skills. The technological, economic political, cultural, and scientific trends derived from globalization affect what universities should teach their students in order to prepare them for professional lives—it should encompass a multidisciplinary, multidimensional, future-oriented leadership vision, shared by all stakeholders in order to respond and adapt appropriately to a diverse changing global environment. One of

the reasons for internationalization is to contribute to quality through the attainment of higher international academic qualifications.

The content of the boxes in Table 1 is a selection of the most relevant operational aims related to each of the five strategic aims, in a resumed form. Naturally, policy-recommendations must go beyond the simple strategic formulation presented here, both in scope and in detail. Based on those guidelines, a government plan for HE should be produced with specific policies to promote the achievement of the strategic aims by HEI, similar to the one elaborated for Ireland (Hunt, 2011). The National Agency for HE evaluation would adjust the required standards of performance, in order to align them with the plan and stimulate universities to achieve them.

However, both the definition of the vision, and the proposed simple strategic formulation, should be the only a first step; a government medium-term plan has to be discussed by all stakeholders of the HE system in order to generate a national strategy. The success of it would, therefore, depend upon the leadership of the whole process, participative governance mechanisms, and decision-making structures.

Conclusions

Internationalization of HE has moved from mobility of students and staff to transnationalization, so that HEIs are becoming global institutions. The review of literature showed that the motives for internationalization differ, being associated with the responses of HEI to the challenges of globalization at various levels: socio-cultural, economic, academic, and political. The academic motivation is very strong, relating to the aim of increasing HEI performance. The cultural aim of stimulating global awareness and knowledge in students is relevant for internationalization but its degree of achievement is difficult to estimate. Internationalization is better analysed as a continuous process, which registers several stages and determines an evolution in HEI strategies, which were discussed in Section 2. An increasing number of universities, both in developed as in emergent countries elaborate a policy or strategy of internationalization, although mobility of students is still relatively small in terms of total enrolment, with the exception of the USA and the UK, and have stabilized (Section 3). Benefits and risk have to be weighted in order to face the opportunities offered.

Section 4 aimed to show that national strategies are important to guide each HE institution in the implementation of its own strategy as the alignment with national priorities may ensure global coherence and greater value for society. A strategic plan that incorporates internationalization is an ambitious task for an HEI; in the same way, designing and implementing a national strategy is an ambitious enterprise for government. It has to include participation of stakeholders, which depends highly on good governance. As Knight (2005) points out, there are opportunities in the global context, but there may be risks also. Cooperation and mobility on equal terms turn out to be a creative challenge to reconsider. The Bologna reform is facilitating migration of young graduates from southern European countries, such as Portugal to central and northern Europe, threatening a brain-drain. So, as a final comment, the citation of Rumbley, Altbach, and Reisberg (2010) is quite appropriate:

> Presented with a world of opportunities but only limited resources, making informed and creative choices about internationalization—with a clear sense of the interplay between risks and benefits, opportunities and imperatives, obstacles and resources—requires unique skills and talents, real vision, and sustained commitment. (p. 24)

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Appendix 1

Table A

Evolution in the Number of International HE Students in the UK (2010-2015)

Origin of students	2010-11	2011-12	2013-13	2013-14	2014-15	Change 2013-15
China	67,330	78,715	83,790	87,895	89,540	2%
India	39,090	29,900	22,385	19,750	18,320	-7%
Nigeria	17,585	17,620	17,395	18,020	17,920	-1%
Malaysia	13,900	14,545	15,015	16,635	17,060	3%
United States	15,555	16,335	16,235	16,485	16,865	2%

(Table A continued)

Hong Kong (China)	10,440	11,335	13,065	14,725	16,215	10%
Saudi Arabia	10,270	9,860	9,440	9,060	8,595	-5%
Singapore	4,455	5,290	6,020	6,790	7,295	7%
Thailand	5,945	6,235	6,180	6,340	6,240	-2%
Pakistan	10,185	8,820	7,185	6,665	6,080	-9%
All other	103,375	104,030	103,270	107,830	107,875	0%
Total all UK HEPs	298,125	302,680	299,970	310,195	312,010	1%

Source: UNESCO (Higher Education in Asia: Expanding Out, Expanding Up. The rise of graduate education and university research. UNESCO Institute for Statistics, pp. 37-38, 40-41).

Table B

Common Forms of Transnational Education (TNE)

1. Franchising

The process whereby a higher education institution (franchiser) from a certain country grants another institution (franchisee) in another country the right to provide the franchiser's programmes/qualifications in the franchisee's host country, irrespective of the students' provenance (from the first, the second or any other country); in many cases, the franchisee only provides the first part of the educational programme, which can be recognised as partial credits towards a qualification at the franchiser's in the context of a "programme articulation"; the franchisee is not always recognised in the host country, even if the franchiser's programmes/qualifications delivered in the home country are recognised in the host country.

2. Programme articulations

Inter-institutional arrangements whereby two or more institutions agree to define jointly a study programme in terms of study credits and credit transfer, so that students pursuing their studies in one institution have their credits recognised by the other in order to continue their studies ("twinning programmes", "articulation agreements", etc.). These may—or may not—lead to joint or double degrees.

3. Branch campus

A campus established by a higher education institution from one country in another country (host country) to offer its own educational programmes/qualifications, irrespective of the students' provenance: the arrangement is similar to franchising, but the franchisee is a campus of the franchiser; the notes on franchising apply here as well.

4. Off-shore institutions

An autonomous institution established in a host country but saying to belong, in terms of its organisation and educational contents, to the education system of some other country, without having a campus in the pretended mother country; they are seldom recognised in the host country; some are accredited by regional or national accrediting commissions in the USA (which are often said to be the mother country); some may have articulation agreements with other educational institutions in the country of domicile.

5. Large corporations

Are usually parts of big transnational corporations and organise their own higher education institutions or study programmes offering qualifications, which do not belong to any national system of higher education.

6. International institutions

Institutions offering so-called "international" programmes/qualifications, which actually do not refer to any specific education system; may have branch campuses in several countries; are seldom recognised in host countries.