

CIHE  
Perspectives  
No. 12

# International Mapping of National Tertiary Education Internationalization Strategies and Plans (NTEISPs)

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Georgiana Mihut and Ayenachew Woldegiyorgis

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Chestnut Hill, MA ~ USA



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Analytical Report  
1 May 2019  
Contract 7188268



The Boston College Center *for*  
International Higher Education

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## FOREWORD

It is our great pleasure to present the 12th issue of *CIHE Perspectives*, a series of studies focusing on aspects of research and analysis undertaken by the Center for International Higher Education (CIHE).

This issue is the second report commissioned by the World Bank. The first one, *CIHE Perspectives 1* (2016), sought to map the landscape of International Advisory Councils (IACs) at tertiary education institutions around the world. With this second report, *CIHE Perspectives 12*, the World Bank and CIHE envisioned another mapping opportunity, in this case to gauge the scope of National Tertiary Education Internationalization Strategies and Plans (NTEISPs) in several countries.

Internationalization of tertiary education is one of the key change agents in the global knowledge society and is high on the strategic agendas of institutional, national and international entities worldwide. While the main focus in internationalization policies has been at the level of colleges and universities, there is an increasing number of governments worldwide, including in low and middle income countries, that are developing national internationalization strategies and plans, which can serve as catalysts for higher education change and development in the national, regional and global knowledge societies.

This report provides analysis based on qualitative desk research of NTEIPs and includes some general recommendations for maximizing the potential of such initiatives. It includes eleven case study countries from Africa, Asia, Central Asia, Central Europe, Middle East and Latin America.

While noting that low- and middle-income countries are becoming more active in defining national policies for internationalization, and on South-South cooperation, the report also recommends countries approach these internationalization trends with caution. In copying a traditional, high-income paradigm in focusing strongly on mobility of stu-

dents and staff, on reputation and branding, and on South-North relations, countries may lose sight of what is specific and appropriate for their own contexts.

The report suggests that more attention be paid to regional cooperation, as is emerging for instance among ASEAN countries, more South-South networking and partnerships, and a stronger focus on internationalization of the curriculum at home. Such focused interventions are vital to break the high-income paradigm in internationalization and to develop policies and actions that build on the own local, national and regional context and culture.

The purpose this mapping exercise is to serve as a resource for policymakers and researchers, but we hope it will also stimulate debate and interaction on key issues among all interested stakeholders in international and comparative higher education. The findings and recommendations in this report can be a source of input and orientation for national governments as well as international organizations, including the World Bank, in developing their strategies and plans to internationalize tertiary education.

We thank Laura E. Rumbley, Daniela Craciun, Georgiana Mihut and Ayenachew Woldegiyorgis, for their contribution to the research and analysis, and the experts consulted in the different case study countries for their input and expertise.

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August 2019

## Introduction and rationale

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Over the past 30 years, internationalization in tertiary education has become a key point of strategy for international entities such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Bank, and the European Commission, as well as for national governments, and for institutions of tertiary education and their associations.

Some of the main institutional and national trends in internationalization in tertiary education in the past 30 years include:

- A greater focus on internationalization abroad than on internationalization at home, with internationalization at home defined by Beelen and Jones as “the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments” (2015, p. 76)
  - Approaches that are more ad hoc, fragmented and marginal than strategic, comprehensive and central in policies, with comprehensive internationalization described by Hudzik as “a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international, global and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise” (2011, p. 6)
  - A greater interest in a small, elite subset of students and faculty than focused on global and intercultural outcomes for all
  - Being directed by a constantly shifting range of political, economic, social/cultural, and educational rationales, with increasing focus on economic motivations
- An increasing tendency to be driven by national, regional, and global rankings
  - Little alignment between the international dimensions of the three core functions of tertiary education: education, research, and service to society
  - Being primarily a strategic choice and focus of institutions of tertiary education, and less a priority of national governments
  - Being less important in emerging and developing economies, and more of a particular strategic concern among developed economies.

In the past decade, however, one can observe a reaction to these trends. While mobility is still the most dominant factor in tertiary education internationalization policies worldwide, increasing attention is being paid to internationalization of the curriculum at home. There is also a stronger call for comprehensive internationalization, which addresses all institutional aspects in an integrated way. Although economic rationales and rankings still drive the agenda of internationalization, there is more emphasis now being placed on other motivations for tertiary education internationalization. For example, attention is being paid to integrating international dimensions into tertiary education quality assurance mechanisms, institutional policies related to student learning outcomes, and the work of national and discipline-specific accreditation agencies. This is reflected in the updated definition of internationalization of tertiary education that was put forward in a study for the European Parliament:

The intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff and to make a meaningful contribution to society (de



Wit et al., 2015, p. 29).

This definition purposefully builds on a 2003 definition for the phenomenon articulated by Jane Knight, by adding the word 'intentional' to highlight the deliberate nature of the process and by adding the words 'in order to...' to highlight the fact that tertiary education internationalization is a means to an end and not an end in itself. Whereas Knight (2014) correctly states that the strength of her widely acknowledged definition is that it is "not prescriptive and focuses on education objectives and functions", the updated definition addresses the weakness of her definition, "that traditional values associated with internationalization such as partnerships, collaboration, mutual benefit, and exchange are not articulated – only assumed" (2014, p. 2). In that respect, the updated definition can be perceived as normative and prescriptive, but at the same time it reorients the process of internationalization to tertiary education's academic and social values.

Meanwhile, where the focus in internationalization has been predominantly on institutional policies and practices, one can currently observe more attention to internationalization in the agendas of national governments, such as Australia, Canada, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and New Zealand. Last but not least, internationalization in tertiary education, as described by Jones and de Wit (2014), has become more globalized, with regional, national and institutional initiatives increasingly evident in the emerging and developing world:

In the current global-knowledge society, the concept of internationalization of higher education has itself become globalized, demanding further consideration of its impact on policy and practice as more countries and types of institution around the world engage in the process. Internationalization should no longer be considered in terms of a westernized, largely Anglo-Saxon, and predominantly English-speaking paradigm (Jones and de Wit, 2014, p. 28).

Recent publications have given more attention to these emerging voices and perspectives (de Wit et

al., 2017) and next generation insights (Proctor and Rumbley, 2018). As Fanta Aw, in her foreword to the book of de Wit et al. (2017) states, "It is important for internationalization efforts to remain contextualized and rooted in culture, place, time and manner" (p. xxii). That is why it is important to study the way not only institutions, but also national governments, in low- and middle-income countries are responding to the need for internationalization in tertiary education. This report thus aims to respond to this need to better understand national tertiary education internationalization strategies and plans in low- and middle-income countries.

The project maps the most recent developments of national tertiary education internationalization strategies and plans (NTEISPs) using desk research and qualitative feedback from country experts. This exercise focuses specifically on Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Egypt, Estonia, Ethiopia, India, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Singapore, South Africa, and the United Arab Emirates (UAE).

Each country case study in the report provides a brief description of the country's tertiary education sector, including its size and a discussion of the national plans, policies, and strategies put forward to internationalize the tertiary education sector. To coherently and consistently describe the tertiary education sector in each country, World Bank (2019) data on the gross enrollment ratio (GER) and distribution of students in the public and private sector were used. In the discussion of NTEISPs, existing research on each country was synthesized paying attention to the following areas:

- History of the plan
- Key priorities and objectives and their timeline
- Resource allocations
- Flagship initiatives or projects
- Evaluations of the plans, where available

In order to best complement the available data on NTEISPs, feedback was solicited from multiple key experts in each of the case countries, to gain better understanding about the scope and effectiveness

of national internationalization strategies and plans in tertiary education, as well as to solicit recommendations for examples of good practice.

For some countries, it was easier to find relevant documentation and have access to stakeholders and experts on this topic. This is the case for those countries that have more explicit NTEISPs, such as Malaysia, South Africa, Colombia, Brazil and, more recently, India. Other countries, such as Ethiopia and Egypt, do not have clear NTEISPs and so they required additional research for information to identify implicit strategies and policies. While challenging, this has helped to identify the complexities of national policies and practices.

The study was designed to meet four distinct objectives:

1. Describe the current state and prevalence of national internationalization strategies and plans in tertiary education in low- and middle-income countries
2. Create a comprehensive and exhaustive typology of national internationalization strategies and plans in tertiary education
3. Advance understanding of the effectiveness of national internationalization strategies and plans in tertiary education

4. Identify examples of good practice among national internationalization strategies and plans in tertiary education

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## Review of relevant literature

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An extensive literature review was conducted for this project, focused on exploring what is currently known about national internationalization strategies and plans. The literature review addressed the following areas:

- Geographic coverage of prior research
- The time-frame of prior research
- Existing typologies, and a consideration of areas of convergence and divergence among them
- Evidence of the effectiveness of national internationalization strategies and plans in tertiary education
- Recommendations for good practice in drafting and implementing national internationalization policies and plans in tertiary education

Over the past five years, several studies by the British Council (2016, 2017), the DAAD and the British Council (2014), Helms et al. (2015), the European Parliament (2015), Craciun (2018a), and Perna et al. (2014) have looked into NTEISPs, and have generated a series of analyses, overviews, rankings, and recommendations on them. So far, no comprehensive analysis and typology has been provided, and less attention has been given to low- and middle-income countries with respect to NTEISPs.

In recent years, internationalization has shaped education at all levels across the world at an accelerated pace. In light of increased student and staff mobility, the expanding presence of branch campuses and international providers, and growing competition for international talent, tertiary education institutions and national governments are mobilizing to both leverage and steer internationalization. National tertiary education internationalization strategies and plans represent the most tangible and direct attempts by governments to play an active and decisive role in relation to internationalization, but there are substantive differences in their approaches, rationales, and priorities.

Meanwhile, new definitions and understandings of internationalization in tertiary education have given way to a new research agenda. Since the definition of tertiary education internationalization has been reworked to include the specification that internationalization is a planned activity, and not something that ‘just happens’ to tertiary education systems or institutions, there has been a trend towards examining national involvement in steering the process (Craciun, 2018c). A survey of NTEISPs provides important lessons about the system-level arrangements meant to advance internationalization and go beyond seeing the process as a by-product of globalization. These lessons become crucial in a policy-making environment striving to learn from best practices and develop evidence-based policies (Craciun, 2018c).

A worldwide census of explicit NTEISPs carried out by Craciun (2018a) reveals that only 11% of countries have an official strategy for internationalization of tertiary education, most having been adopted in the last decade. Such strategies have been developed predominantly by wealthier countries – 3 in 4 NTEISPs are found among members of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). European countries have taken the lead in promoting strategic thinking about internationalization at the national level – 2 in 3 NTEISPs come from this world region (Craciun, 2018a), and programs such as Erasmus+ and Horizon 2020 have led to further regional harmonization of tertiary education systems (British Council, 2017).

This is not to say that other countries have not taken measures to promote internationalization. In fact, to support internationalization processes, many countries have taken both direct measures (e.g., re-evaluating their visa policies to give preferential treatment to international students and scholars, establishing bi-lateral or multi-lateral agreements through memoranda of understanding, and promoting transnational education through free-trade

deals) and indirect measures (e.g., supporting internationalization in political discourses and giving universities autonomy to pursue internationalization activities). Nevertheless, explicit NTEISPs ensure consistency between direct and indirect policy measures and provide a clear signaling of government commitment to internationalization. In other words, NTEISPs move tertiary education internationalization “from the periphery to center stage” (Craciun, 2018b, p. 8). More in-depth, large-scale research on the focus – in terms of rationales and priorities – of NTEISPs is needed to gain a better understanding of what is actually done to promote tertiary education internationalization and the effectiveness of the measures taken (Craciun, 2018c).

As evidenced by a systematic literature review of rigorous research from the last 25 years on transnational cooperation in tertiary education, there are significant economic and non-economic benefits for societies, institutions, and individuals arising from internationalization (Craciun & Orosz, 2018). Benefits for which there is solid evidence include more and better research publications and patents, better foreign language proficiency and employment prospects for internationally mobile students, positive attitudes towards open borders and democracy, strengthened research and teaching capacity, and increased attractiveness of collaborating universities to foreign academics (Craciun & Orosz, 2018). However, it is unclear how effective explicit NTEISPs are in bringing about these benefits. Because many of these national strategies have come about recently, little research has been carried out to gauge their results. Nevertheless, research on policy texts of NTEISPs has consistently singled out international student mobility as a priority for a majority of governments (British Council 2017; Craciun, 2018c; Perna et al., 2014), and data show that almost half of international students worldwide in 2013 were hosted by countries that have explicit NTEISPs (Craciun, 2018a).

Literature, as well as surveys, make clear that the main focus in tertiary education internationalization strategies and plans is still at the institutional level. Indeed, institutions operate in many cases

without a national plan in place. Where national plans do exist, institutions may operate in conflict or in alignment with the national agenda. An NTEISP can serve as a catalyst or a drag on internationalization processes, but is mostly seen as a highly positive element for the advancement of internationalization. Specifically, NTEISPs set internationalization priorities, allocate important resources to meet internationalization goals, and can ensure continuity of efforts between successive governments (Craciun, 2018b). They align tertiary education internationalization with other key national priorities, such as economic growth, national security, or foreign policy. They incentivize institutions and individuals to assist in meeting national strategic goals through internationalization. In short, national tertiary education internationalization strategies and plans offer not only a good overview of the manifestations of internationalization in specific contexts, but also shape the actions of key actors in the process.

However, it would be a misconception to assume that NTEISPs have common rationales and approaches to internationalization across countries. Differences exist between and among high-income, low-income, and middle-income countries with respect to their policies and practices.

Also, there are differences in explicit and implicit policies and practices, with some countries having well documented plans and others having no explicit plans but well-defined activities. In addition, different stakeholders can be identified in the operationalization of NTEISPs. A typology of NTEISPs can improve transparency between and within tertiary education systems (Craciun, 2015), promote synergies through coordination, and ultimately increase the impact of these efforts (Helms et al., 2015). Developing a typology of NTEISPs requires identifying rationales, stakeholders, and organizational, programmatic, and geographic priorities. The case studies in this report provide input for the development of such a typology, with emphasis on low- and middle-income countries that have become active actors in the field of tertiary education internationalization in recent years (European Parliament, 2015).

In this context, the 2018 British Council-funded study (Atherton, Norbaya Binti Azizan, Shuib, & Crosling, 2018) is relevant, as it focuses on the tertiary education internationalization policies in the low- and middle-income countries of Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, The Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam. This study recognized tertiary education's powerful role in international relations and diplomacy and in supporting an integrated and aligned ASEAN (i.e., Association of Southeast Asian Nations) community. One key finding is the ASEAN emphasis on openness and mobility, at varying levels according to each country's developmental stage. Here, 'openness' refers to the government-level commitment to internationalization via international mobility for students, researchers, academic programs and university research, assisting in the development of a 'we-feeling' (Atherton, Crosling, Shuib, & Norbaya Azizan, 2019).

Overall, the Atherton et al. (2018) study indicated strong government support and commitment to internationalizing tertiary education. Internationalization was not found to be a separate strategy in any country but was rather integrated in the broader tertiary education planning framework. Both regional and international mobility were seen to be emerging as a significant or a key component in most countries' strategies. Most countries scored high in terms of high level policy commitment and proactive approaches to establishing or developing international research collaborations and partnerships. In most countries, several approaches have fostered regional and international research collaborations. Meanwhile, despite these positive indications of efforts to train and retain talent, 'brain drain' appeared as a challenge for most countries. This is compounded by the lack of a comprehensive and integrated system to facilitate mutually-beneficial academic exchange throughout this region. Regulations are in place in most countries for cross-border programs by foreign providers. However, in terms of institutional and program mobility, wide differences across countries were in evidence. Several countries scored very high and as global leaders in operating transnationally. However, several countries are at very early stages of development, with little evidence of domes-

tic institutions operating internationally. One key implication from the study is the need for regional harmonization of systems, but with consideration for the diversity and the commonalities that characterize the existing national internationalization strategies. This underscores the importance of developing an ASEAN-centric framework (Atherton et al., 2018; Atherton et al., 2019).

Overall, the literature reviewed for this report points to several key indicators that can be used to guide more systematic thinking about national internationalization policies in tertiary education:

- *Involvement*: Government involvement can be direct (i.e., through explicit policy documents to advance or regulate internationalization and by earmarking funds to be invested in pursuing this objective) or indirect (i.e., by supporting internationalization at a discursive level and allowing universities to pursue internationalization, but at their own expense).
- *Stakeholders*: Stakeholders may come from a wide ecosystem of actors related to tertiary education, including ministries (such as education or foreign affairs), other national agencies, the private sector, international organizations, regional bodies and institutions, etc.
- *History*: While there is a long tradition of indirect government support for tertiary education internationalization, more direct and strategic actions, policies, and plans have only appeared more recently (Crăciun, 2018a).
- *Geographic focus*: In general, there is an evolving regionalization of tertiary education internationalization in which European policies are taken as best practice examples (de Wit et al., 2015). Significantly, when looking at the global picture, explicit national internationalization strategies for tertiary education are prevalent in Europe, but not so much in other world regions (Crăciun, 2018a).
- *Tactical focus*: Some strategies are rather generic, expressing a general vision for tertiary education internationalization while others have

specific focal points or action lines that frame the scope of activities of interest (for instance, inbound or outbound mobility).

- *Effectiveness*: In terms of the effectiveness of national policies for tertiary education internationalization, little is known. This can be explained by the fact that the most policies are quite recent so there are few, if any, studies assessing the effectiveness of such policy instruments. Thus, the evidence is usually anecdotal or reliant on quantitative measures related to internationalization abroad (i.e., international student mobility).

For this report we have studied a number of low- and middle-income countries from different continents to provide insights into NTEISPs for these types of countries. These country cases are presented separately in this report. Each includes a brief overview of the tertiary education system, as well as a discussion of national strategies, policies, and plans intended to internationalize tertiary education in the country. The next sections provide the main conclusions drawn from the analysis, followed by recommendations for governments and tertiary education institutions to be used in the design, implementation, and evaluation of NTEISPs. Estonia is offered as a good practice example to highlight the positive impact that NTEISPs can have on internationalizing tertiary education.



# Mapping national internationalization strategies and plans

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Some key findings from the mapping exercise can be identified as follows:

- There is a divide between countries with explicit and implicit NTEISPs but, with the exception of Ethiopia and the UAE, all the countries have some form of explicit policy on internationalization in tertiary education. At the same time, in all of the countries, one can also find implicit references to tertiary education internationalization in their education and/or foreign relations policies.
- There is a divide between countries with policies directly focused on tertiary education internationalization and those in which internationalization is just one element of a broader policy or plan. Nevertheless, seven out of the twelve countries have a specific stand-alone policy for tertiary education internationalization, and five out of these seven even have a strong policy orientation. All of the countries studied have embedded internationalization in their overall national education and/or foreign relations policies, although in many cases in rather generic terms with little in the way of specific articulation of actions. An exception is Colombia, where the Ministry of Education directly, and through the national accreditation agency, sets targets and indicators for tertiary education internationalization.
- National governments are the leading actors in the internationalization of tertiary education in all of the case countries, and in four cases (Brazil, Ecuador, India, and Malaysia) national governments are quite strong actors. South Africa offers an example of a national policy that is defined by the national government but with institutions of tertiary education explicitly named as the key actors.
- Overall, one can describe the process of operationalizing NTEISPs as rather top-down.
- In some countries there is a lack of clear national plans and institutions are left to provide direction (as in Ethiopia and Egypt); in others, it is primarily the Ministry of Education, or other ministries, or a combination of ministries, that are involved. These actions may also be characterized by a combination of initiatives of national and institutional stakeholders (as in Colombia, for instance)
- Most countries specify explicit geographic focal points for their tertiary education internationalization activities and, in most cases, these are high-income countries in the developed world, i.e., they are South-North oriented. Nonetheless, one can also observe a South-South trend, from low-income to middle-income countries (for instance in the cases of India, Malaysia, and South Africa) and a focus on neighboring countries (for instance, in Africa).
- There is a divide between countries focusing on incoming mobility (India, for instance), on outgoing mobility (Brazil, for example), and two-way mobility. Most strategies focus on student mobility, and to a lesser extent on scholar mobility and transnational education. Estonia is the only country with a more comprehensive approach, supported by European programs.
- Research and publications collaboration; partnerships, networks and consortia; and enhancing quality and aspiring to international quality standards, are quite common in national policies.
- Internationalization at home and of the curriculum, as well as national and foreign language policy, are rather marginal focal points in national policies.
- There is very little evidence that NTEISPs are designed with the goal of advancing social justice,

inclusion, and equity objectives. Leveraging tertiary education internationalization to meet the needs of historically marginalized and/or underrepresented populations does not appear to be a priority in any of the cases examined for this study.

What can we conclude from these findings? We can observe that low- and middle-income countries are becoming more active in defining national policies for internationalization and in fostering South-South cooperation, breaking with the “westernized, largely Anglo-Saxon, and predominantly English-speaking paradigm” of internationalization, as mentioned by Jones and de Wit (2012). But, serious caution must be expressed with respect to this trend. The analysis revealed a degree of policy mimicry, in that the low- and middle-income countries considered in this study appear to have adopted many aspects of the western paradigm of tertiary education internationalization by focusing heavily on mobility, on reputation and branding, and on South-North relations. There is also little continuity in their national policies, due to political and economic factors. Brazil provides a vivid case of this kind of dynamic.

The NTEISPs of low- and middle-income countries appear to sustain the dominance of high-income countries through the structure and terms of their scholarship schemes, their geographic priorities, and their choices with respect to partnerships in research and education. More attention to regional cooperation, as is emerging, for instance, among ASEAN countries; more South-South networking and partnerships; and a stronger focus on internationalization of the curriculum at home, is needed to break the high-income paradigm in tertiary education internationalization and to develop policies and actions that build on the local, national and regional contexts and cultures of low- and middle-income countries.

Ultimately, it was not possible to construct a typology of national strategies, based on the work of this review. However, it was possible to create a summary table, outlining the key characteristics of the reviewed plans, which could be used to organize and classify other national internationalization plans.

This summary table appears as Table 2, on the following pages.



TABLE 2. *Characteristics of NTEISPs*

Policy characteristics	Case countries											
	Brazil	Colombia	Ecuador	Egypt	Estonia	Ethiopia	India	Kazakhstan	Malaysia	Singapore	South Africa <sup>**</sup>	United Arab Emirates
Approaches to policy articulation												
• Implicit focus on internationalization						x						x
• Explicit focus on internationalization	xx	xx		x	xx		xx	x	xx	xx	xx	
Approaches to policy formulation												
• Stand-alone policy for internationalization	xx	x			xx		xx		xx	x	xx	
• Internationalization policy embedded in a broader policy	x	xx	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	xx	x
Key actors												
• National governments/ministries	xx	x	xx	x	x	x	xx	x	xx	x	x	x
• Non- or quasi-governmental actors		x		x	x	x					x	
• Tertiary education institutions	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	xx	x
• Foreign governments				x		x					x	
• International organizations				x							x	
Geographic priorities												
• Explicit geographic focal points	x			x		x	x		x	x	x	

\* *Note:* An “xx” designation denotes that this specific policy characteristic is especially “strong” or evident in the particular NTEISP or national context.

\*\* *Note:* At the time this report was being prepared, South Africa’s internationalization policy was currently under review.

TABLE 2. *Characteristics of NTEISPs (continued)*

Policy characteristics	Case countries												
	Brazil	Colombia	Ecuador	Egypt	Estonia	Ethiopia	India	Kazakhstan	Malaysia	Singapore	South Africa <sup>**</sup>	United Arab Emirates	
Priority action lines													
• Incoming student mobility	x	x	x	x	x	x	xx	x	xx	x	xx	x	
• Outgoing student mobility	xx	x		x	x	x		x	xx	x	x	x	
• Incoming academic staff/faculty mobility		x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x	x	
• Outgoing academic staff/faculty mobility		x		x		x		x	x		x		
• Visa and immigration processes					x				x		x		
• International student/faculty services									x		x		
• Program and/or institutional mobility (includes cross-border and transnational education, educational hubs, international branch campuses, joint and dual degrees, online delivery)		x	x	x	x	x			xx	xx	x	x	
• Research and publications collaboration	x	x		x		x		x	x		x	x	
• Joint doctoral supervision				x	x	x					x		
• Partnerships, networks, and consortia		x		x		x		x	x		x	x	
• Internationalization of the curriculum (includes approaches to teaching and learning)		x			x	x					x		
• Internationalization at home		x				x		x			x	x	
• Requiring or encouraging teaching in non-local languages				x		x		x	x			x	
• Requiring or encouraging foreign language study or proficiency					x			x					
• Leveraging diaspora and/or internationally educated returnees				x		x		x		x	x		
• Facilitating employment for international students and international graduates					x								
• Enhancing quality and/or aspiring to international quality standards		x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	
• Aiming to develop world-class universities							x	x	x	x	x		

\* Note: An “xx” designation denotes that this specific policy characteristic is especially “strong” or evident in the particular NTEISP or national context.

\*\* Note: At the time this report was being prepared, South Africa’s internationalization policy was currently under review.

## Pointers for action on national tertiary education internationalization strategies and plans

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By analyzing the different features of NTEISPs, some pointers for action can be considered by governments and tertiary education institutions, as they work on the design, implementation and/or evaluation of NTEISPs;

- NTEISPs should not be developed and implemented in isolation from broader strategies for tertiary education and socio-economic development; rather, their rationales should be driven by, and firmly embedded in, the socio-economic and tertiary education context of the country.
- NTEISPs, ideally, should not be single-issue focused (such as recruitment of international students, outbound mobility of students, or increasing performance in rankings); rather, they should have a broader comprehensive approach, with integrated action lines that address aspects of internationalization abroad and internationalization at home, as well as the interaction between these two dimensions.
- NTEISPs should develop indicators to evaluate the attainment of the strategic objectives set by the plans, going beyond quantitative indicators of international mobility. In this way, the importance and achievements of NTEISPs can be objectively evaluated and policy learning can occur.
- NTEISPs should take into account the international dimensions of all three core functions of tertiary education—research, education, and service to society—and consider how each of these dimensions can contribute to strengthening the other two and create synergies between them.
- NTEISPs should address not only the potential benefits of internationalization, but also potential obstacles and risks associated with this process, and incorporate actions aimed at minimizing obstacles and mitigating risks.
- NTEISPs should clearly address the matter of how to strengthen the professional, academic, and ‘soft’ skills of students. Attention should be paid to enhancing both intercultural and international competences to support students’ employability and citizenship development.
- NTEISPs should pay careful attention to national policies related to language and culture associated with tertiary education. These are important concerns in a globalized knowledge society and economy, where English is the dominant language of communication in research, but also increasingly in the delivery of education.
- NTEISPs should attend thoughtfully to matters of social justice and equity. For example, when framing geographic priorities, national policies and plans should not only focus on South-North relations and partnerships, but also strengthen South-South collaboration. The needs of historically marginalized and underrepresented domestic populations should also be carefully considered in the design and implementation of NTEISPs.
- NTEISPs should look at the regional context of their internationalization policies, as regional policies for harmonization of tertiary structures and related support mechanisms offer important ways to enhance the quality of tertiary education in the national context (the European Higher Education Area and ASEAN provide important examples here).
- NTEISPs need to be based, both in their creation and implementation, on the active involvement of a wide range of stakeholders: ideally, a range of national ministries, tertiary education institutions and their associations, student and staff organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and the private sector.

## Estonia: Example of Good Practice

### *Tertiary education system in brief*

In the last decade, Estonia's national tertiary education system has been shrinking, both in terms of student numbers and in number of post-secondary institutions. While, in 2007, there were 68,200 students enrolled at the tertiary level of education, in 2017, there were only 46,200 (Statistics Estonia, 2018a). That represents a 32% decrease in student enrollments in just one decade. This change has been mirrored in the overall number of tertiary education institutions. In 2007, the tertiary education system consisted of 35 institutions; in 2017, however, only 20 universities and professional tertiary education institutions were still operating (Statistics Estonia, 2018c). According to World Bank data, 85.7% of students were enrolled in private tertiary education institutions in 2016.

As in the rest of Europe, these developments are in part explained by demographic changes happening in Estonia. Moreover, the number of admitted students that self-finance their studies has consistently decreased, especially at the bachelor level and in private universities (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). It is safe to say that the decrease in enrollment would be even more pronounced if it were not for the increasing number of international students pursuing tertiary education in Estonia. In 2017, there were 4,603 foreign students enrolled in post-secondary education (Statistics Estonia, 2018b). This represents a 15% increase in foreign students from the previous year. These numbers mean that foreign students represent 10% of all the students enrolled in tertiary education in Estonia.

### *Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans*

In Estonia, internationalization became an important strategic theme from the mid-1990s onwards (Tamtik & Kirss, 2016). Since then, a number of steps have been taken by the government to support internationalization in the tertiary education sector, presenting internationalization as "an inevitable and inescapable reality of today's academia" (Kibbermann, 2017, p. 104).

The main strategic document steering tertiary education internationalization is the *Strategy for the Internationalisation of Estonian Higher Education over the Years 2006-2015* (Ministry of Education and Research, 2007). While this sub-document of the Estonian national strategy for tertiary education gives special attention to internationalization, the policy is designed in sync with the wider vision for tertiary education in the country. The main objectives are to "improve the competitiveness of Estonian higher education in the region" and make the tertiary education system "more open and visible" by creating "a legal and institutional environment that supports internationalization in all its aspects" (2007, p. 2). The policy focuses on three main strategic areas of development in order to achieve these goals:

1. Creating a legal environment that is supportive of internationalization by following international developments in quality assurance, streamlining recognition of foreign credentials, developing joint international curricula, enabling portability of student loans, supporting transnational tertiary education, and simplifying immigration policies;

2. Internationalizing teaching by enabling student mobility, increasing the international know-how of faculty, and internationalizing study programs;
3. Developing a support system for internationalization by creating an institutional environment that is open, inclusive, and integrated, and implementing an information system that promotes Estonia as a study destination, shares opportunities for studying and working in the country, and enables the exchange of good practices in the field.

Beyond the direct support from the Ministry of Education and Research, internationalization has received strong, sustained, and coordinated support from a variety of governmental and institutional actors. The Archimedes Foundation—which is an intermediary organization with “government support but benefits from the operational flexibility of an NGO” (Matei & Iwinska, 2015, p. 218)—has developed the “Study in Estonia” platform to raise awareness of the opportunities that the country offers to international students. Moreover, the rectors of both public and private universities, as well as professional tertiary education institutions, have put together their vision of what needs to be achieved in the areas of student and faculty mobility in the strategic document *Agreement on Good Practice in the Internationalisation of Estonia’s Higher Education Institutions* (Estonian Rectors’ Conference, 2007). This coalition has given institutional leaders a unified voice and the bargaining power to push for legislative change and build a supportive institutional environment for internationalization (Matei & Iwinska, 2015).

Finally, the *National Reform Programme “Estonia 2020”* (Government Office, 2011)—a national action plan in line with the Europe 2020 strategic objectives—explicitly supports tertiary education internationalization both abroad and at home. Specifically, by 2020, Estonia aims to increase the share of international students in formal tertiary education to 10% and retain 30% of master’s and doctoral international students in the Estonian workforce (European Commission, 2018).

The Estonian policy landscape exemplifies significant depth and breadth of government support for the internationalization of the country’s tertiary education system. Beyond a supportive legislative and policy environment, the government has also sustained internationalization through funding. The efforts have already shown signs of success. For instance, the target of having international students represent 10% of the overall student body by 2020 has already been achieved.

### *Good practice example*

The Strategy for the *Internationalisation of Estonian Higher Education over the Years 2006-2015* has been considered by experts consulted informally for this report as “a classroom example of how things should be done and was indeed very effective (while it lasted)”. While not necessarily adopting a comprehensive approach to tertiary education internationalization, the case of Estonia is a good practice example of setting ambitious performance targets to measure progress with regard to internationalization goals.

To achieve these performance targets, the Estonian government set up a supportive legal framework and financially backed the development of the process beginning in 2007. A mid-term evaluation of the national internationalization strategy (Tamtik, Kirss, Beerkens, & Kaarma, 2011), looking at the performance targets proposed by the strategic document, found that progress was made on all indicators. Table 1 summarizes the overarching goals, the performance targets that were to be met

TABLE 1. *Goals and achievements of the Estonian tertiary education internationalization strategy*

Goal	Performance target by 2015	2006/2007	2014/2015
Increase outbound student mobility	At least 4-5% of Estonian students, or around 2,000 students, should take part in international exchanges	1.2% (796 students)	3.1% (2,132 students) (2010/2011)
Increase inbound student mobility	2,000 international students should be enrolled in full-time study at Estonian higher education institutions	901 students	3,476 students (2015/2016)
Increase number of state-funded doctoral students	Increase the annual number of state-funded doctoral students to 300	153 graduates	208 graduates
Increase international student graduate numbers at doctoral level	10% of annual doctoral graduates should be foreign nationals	3.9%	12%
Increase international experience of doctoral students	All Estonian doctoral graduates should have spent at least one semester abroad	N/A	N/A
Increase proportion of international academic staff	At least 3% of full-time academic staff should be of foreign origin	3.7% (71 academic staff)	5.1% (309 academic staff) (2010/2011)
Develop foreign language study programs and curricula	Develop 5 to 7 state-supported foreign language study programs	N/A	7 (2010/2011)

Source: Compiled by the authors from Ministry of Education and Research, 2016; Tamtik et al., 2011; Ministry of Education and Research, 2007.

by 2015, and the progress made by Estonia in the time frame when the strategy was active.

As indicated by Table 1, Estonia has either met or made considerable progress on all the performance targets (for which data are available) set by the national internationalization strategy. The national strategy has been considered a “roadmap to success,” taking Estonia “from zero to hero” (Kisler, 2018) in tertiary education internationalization.

International student and scholar mobility have received continued support through the “Study in Estonia” and “Research in Estonia” initiatives and programs such as the Kristjan Jaak Scholarships and DORA+ funding. These are seen by experts consulted for this analysis as clear examples of good practice in promoting national strategic objectives of talent attraction and retention. Nevertheless, no new national strategy has been put forward by the Estonian government since this one ended in 2015, which seems to indicate, as expressed by one expert consulted for this study, that internationalization in Estonia “has lost some of its luster”. Furthermore, country experts consulted for this study cite an emergence of tensions between policies promoting the Estonian language and those promoting the use of English. The penetration of English as a strategic decision for, or unintended consequence of, internationalization is not unique to Estonia and is currently a source of concern and debate in different countries.

# Country Case Studies

## Brazil

### Tertiary education system in brief

Tertiary education in Brazil is mostly seen as a public good—the public expenditure on education is 5.6% of the gross domestic product, or GDP (British Council & DAAD, 2014)—and as a means to foster social mobility (de Mello Costa, 2014). The tertiary education system is comprised of public and private tertiary education institutions, with the former being fully funded by the government, free of charge, and having a better reputation for quality education than the latter (Arruda, 2017). As such, the competition for publicly funded seats in federal and state universities has been fierce. A major concern for tertiary education development has been to improve tertiary education attainment rates and increase the percentage of students from disadvantaged backgrounds in public universities through affirmative action (Stanek, 2013). According to World Bank figures, the gross enrollment ratio in tertiary education was 50.5% in 2016. In fact, the number of undergraduate students has almost doubled in just a decade, from 4.6 million in 2005 to 8 million in 2016 (Statista, 2018). Public universities service only a quarter of tertiary education students (Knobel & Verhine, 2017).

In this context, tertiary education internationalization has not been a strategic priority for the country until recently. In fact, if international student mobility is considered as an indicator for how internationalized a tertiary education system is, it can be noted that only 0.5% of Brazilian students study abroad, well below the 6% OECD average but “still double the number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education in Brazil” (OECD, 2017a, p. 6).

### Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

Internationalization has become an important stra-

tegic theme of Brazilian tertiary education only in the last decade but attempts to internationalize tertiary education date from the 1960s. While there is no national policy for tertiary education internationalization, the National Education Plan (2014) does mention three objectives related to internationalization: (1) increase outbound student and faculty mobility; (2) consolidate programs that encourage international networking and strengthen research collaboration in order to internationalize Brazilian research and postgraduate studies; and (3) promote international scientific and technological exchange between tertiary education institutions. Over the years, the development of tertiary education internationalization in the country has been based on targeted programs with specific objectives, such as increasing inbound mobility from developing countries, increasing outbound mobility to top ranked universities, and promoting international research collaboration.

*The Graduate and Post-Graduate Student Agreement Programs* are federal government projects initiated in the 1960s and renewed in the 2000s that offer full scholarships every year to hundreds of students from more than 50 developing countries in Africa, South America, and Asia to obtain a degree in Brazil (Ministry of External Relations, 2018). The program is managed by the Ministry of External Relations together with the Ministry of Education, as a diplomatic tool aimed to increase Brazil’s soft power and improve its image abroad.

*The Brazil Scientific Mobility Program (2011)*—an extension of the more widely known program Science without Borders—provided scholarships for international mobility to Brazilian students pursuing an undergraduate or postgraduate degree in the STEM fields (i.e., science, technology, engineering and mathematics) at national public universities (Helms

et al., 2015). To receive a scholarship, students had to pursue their studies at one of the top 250 universities worldwide, as determined by international rankings (British Council, 2014). Upon completion, the scholarship recipients were required to return to Brazil and stay in the country for a period of time at least equivalent to the time spent studying abroad. The program ran between 2011 and 2017, was well-funded by the Brazilian government and through private funds (Perna et al., 2014), and aimed to award 101,000 scholarships (British Council, 2014)—a goal that was achieved (Arruda, 2017).

*The Institutional Program for the Internationalization of Brazilian Higher Education and Research Institutes* (Capes-PrInt), set to begin in 2018 and last for a duration of four years, aims to increase the scientific impact of postgraduate research by incentivizing tertiary education institutions and research institutes to develop institutional internationalization strategies (CAPES, 2017). Impetus for the policy came from the fact that, while Brazil ranks 13th in the world in terms of research output, the citation impact of the publications has been historically low compared to the world average (Clarivate Analytics, 2017). This initiative seems appropriate for addressing the stated aims, as international research collaboration has consistently been shown to increase both research output (as measured by publications and patents) and quality (as measured by citations) (Fabrizi, Guarini, & Meliciani, 2016; Frenken, Ponds, & van Oort, 2010; Hird & Pfothenauer, 2017).

In terms of effectiveness, the *Brazil Scientific Mobility Program* has been considered a success by hitting its intended goal of promoting outbound mobility and reaching its stated targets. Countries such as the United States and United Kingdom have seen an increase in international students from Brazil, coinciding with the years of operation of this initiative (Helms et al., 2015). However, a major concern has been the lack of evaluation of the achievements of the program beyond reaching the target numbers for outbound student mobility. Experts on internationalization have argued that the failure to monitor and evaluate the learning outcomes of participating students and the broader impacts (societal, sectoral,

institutional, etc.) of this significant public investment beyond individual benefits casts doubts on the actual effectiveness of the program in achieving its broader goals (Knobel, 2015; Stallivieri, 2015). In fact, “high costs and uncertain benefits” (ICEF Monitor, 2017) were cited by the government as the official rationales for ending the program in 2017.

The Capes-PrInt program is wider in scope than the *Brazil Scientific Mobility Program*, as it aims to build international research networks and collaborative partnerships between institutions that go beyond international student mobility and focus on a broader set of areas than the STEM fields (Arruda, 2017). While the program is more ambitious, it offers less financial support (Arruda, 2017). In fact, only 25 universities – which represent around 1% of the total number of Brazilian tertiary education institutions – were selected to benefit from the financial resources offered by the program (CAPES, 2018). Only time will tell if this limited number of institutions can deliver the intended results.



# Colombia

## Tertiary education system in brief

Student enrollment in Colombian tertiary education has been consistently increasing in the past few years from 1.67 million in 2010 to over 2.44 million in 2017. This has translated into a considerable 21 percentage-point increase in the gross enrollment ratio from 39.4 in 2010 to 60.4 in 2017. Colombia's ambition of positioning itself as the best educated country in Latin America by 2025 is the driving force behind this expansion, as well as other reforms. Public tertiary education in Colombia accounts for a slightly higher proportion of the student population than the private sector, although there are many more private institutions in number. Of the 289 tertiary education institutions, as of 2017, private institutions accounted for 72% (208) while public institutions were about 21% (62). The other 19 institutions were under special rule linked to public institutions. In terms of type, 84 of the institutions were universities – 31 public and 52 private (Vélez, 2018). Other types of institutions include *instituciones profesionales técnicas* (offering 2-3 year technician degrees), *instituciones tecnológicas* (offering 3-4 year technologist degrees), and *instituciones universitarias–escuelas tecnológicas* (offering professional titles and licensure degrees). Universities offer all of the aforementioned degrees, as well as graduate degrees (Immerstein, 2015)

The Vice-ministry of Higher Education, which is part of the Ministry of National Education, is responsible for supporting the ministry in the development, adoption, and implementation of policies, strategies, and projects related to tertiary education (Government of Colombia, 2017). All tertiary education institutions and programs are required to be registered with the Ministry. Once determined to have met the minimum quality requirements and granted permission to offer study programs, institutions are added to the list of registered institutions (Immerstein, 2015). Meanwhile, ICETEX, the Colombian Institute for Student Loans and Technical Studies Abroad, is in charge of student loans and

international educational cooperation (Government of Colombia, 2017).

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

Activities of an international nature have long been undertaken in Colombian tertiary education. Jaramillo, Zuñiga, and Blom (2002) have documented how globalization has affected Colombian tertiary education, which has resulted in responses via different initiatives, particularly student mobility and internationalization in the curriculum. However, efforts have remained limited to activities by institutions and networks of institutions, without a national strategy in place.

In a 2009 online publication, the National Ministry of Education (MNE) articulated the various benefits of internationalization for Colombian tertiary education, and identified major actors, which largely focused on institutions and their networks. The ministry identified its role, among other things, as one of the major participants in the Interinstitutional Committee for the Internationalization of Higher Education - a body that seeks to create synergy across the initiatives of a range of bodies. The ministry also outlined various facets of internationalization that it encouraged institutions to pursue (MNE, 2009). These include the management of internationalization, international academic mobility, participation in institutional networks, and the internationalization of the curriculum and of research. Nonetheless, the official discourse regarding internationalization did not take root in the mainstream national education development plan, and institutions, particularly public ones, are constrained by resource limitations (Berry & Taylor, 2014). Currently, there is still no national policy or strategy (Vélez, 2018), although the MNE has identified internationalization as one area of focus, including measures such as capacity building for internationalization of institutions, promoting Colombia as a destination for quality education, and promoting conditions for internationalization by in-

stitutions (Henao & Vélez, 2015).

According to Vélez (2018), a significant majority of Colombian tertiary education institutions report some form of engagement with internationalization, some more so than others. One common example of this is the establishment of an international office. However, institutions often lack the commitment that is necessary for effective internationalization. Limited resources, lack of coordination of activities, and deficits in the use of information management systems are some of the constraining factors that challenge internationalization.

One of the common areas of internationalization for Colombian institutions is the mobility of students and faculty. According to Henao & Vélez (2015), while both public and private institutions engage in student mobility, public institutions tend to absorb more of the country's inbound international students, while the private institutions are responsible for more of the outgoing mobile students. Mobility of faculty can also be found in both private and public institutions, where the latter account for a larger number of incoming faculty. The United States, Spain, and Argentina are the most common source and destination countries for faculty mobility.

Although the research capacity of Colombian institutions is not very strong, there is consensus around the need for international competitiveness in research (Henao & Vélez, 2015). *Colombia Científica*, a program launched in 2016, can be seen as a typical example of the emphasis on internationalization of research in Colombia. According to Vélez (2018), the program allocates resources in key areas of national priority for research collaboration led by high quality accredited institutions involving international and less developed Colombian institutions, local companies, and government agencies. Co-supervising doctoral dissertations with international academics and participating in international scientific networks and associations are other aspects of the internationalization of research in Colombia (Henao & Vélez, 2015). Community engagement in the form of services to local, national, and regional communities is also perceived as one of the areas of internationalization (Vélez, 2018).

While about half of all institutions are reported to have no policy related to the internationalization of their curriculum, a significant majority of those that do report having such policies are in the private sector (Vélez, 2018). Foreign language, particularly English, has assumed an important role as a requirement at different levels, while other languages are often considered optional. Some institutions require proficiency in English as a requirement for degree completion; others put it as a requirement for admission into graduate programs.

Double degree programs in partnership with foreign (mainly European) institutions, international accreditation of academic programs, and partnering with foreign institutions to develop and deliver online courses constitute other aspects of internationalization at home, according to Henao and Vélez (2015).

Despite not having a clearly stipulated national internationalization strategy, various supports for the internationalization efforts of tertiary education institutions in Colombia have produced visible positive outcomes. For instance, the number of institutions with an internationalization policy or strategy has increased, investment in international activities has risen, and the extent and effectiveness of institutions' participation in regional and international networks has improved. Similarly, a greater degree of success is evident in relation to the participation of Colombian institutions in various international cooperation programs, including Erasmus+, Horizon 2020, and the *Alianza Pacífico*, among others. The effective coordination between public and private institutions is also worth a mention.

In the absence of a clear programmatic approach in a national strategy, long-term sustainability of some of the programs can be compromised as governments change. Furthermore, government attempts to convert Colombia into a learning destination are affected by limited funding. Similarly, the development of international joint degree programs and enhancement of student mobility can be limited by unclear policies for the recognition of academic credits earned outside the country.

# Ecuador

## Tertiary education system in brief

Tertiary education in Ecuador has undergone multiple transformations in recent years. The system has dealt with abrupt massification, coupled with an increase in the number of private providers (Holm-Nielsen et al., 2002). Between 2013 and 2015, the student enrollment in tertiary education increased by 12%, from 586,105 to 669,437 students. This increase placed the gross enrollment ratio in the country at 45.5% in 2015. In the same year, 45.1% of students were enrolled in private tertiary education institutions. Concerns for equity and access—in part due to population increases—have prompted Ecuador to suspend fees for public universities (Bernasconi & Celis, 2017; Van Hoof et al., 2013) and to decrease institutional autonomy (Saavedra, 2012; Van Hoof, 2015) through the 2008 Constitution and the 2010 Higher Education Law. A similar push for quality assurance has led to the closure of multiple institutions in the country that did not meet accreditation standards (Johnson, 2017).

Between 2007 and 2016, Ecuador invested 1.8% of its gross domestic product (GDP) in tertiary education, making it one of the leading countries in the region in terms of public funding allocated to the system (República de Ecuador, Consejo Nacional de Planificación, 2017). At the same time, the system has been impacted by political and economic shifts. Affected by both an economic downturn and an earthquake in 2016, fewer resources have been allocated to the education sector in Ecuador since that time, (World Bank, 2017) thus undermining some of the ambitious policies of the government in the area of internationalization.

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

Ecuador is both a source and destination country for student mobility. Due to its proximity to the United States, Ecuador has become a recurrent destination for service and volunteering programs involving US college students. In the academic year 2015/2016

alone, 3,751 US students studied abroad in Ecuador and 494 students conducted non-credit work, internships, or volunteered in the country (Institute of International Education, 2017). In the 2016/2017 academic year, about 3,032 Ecuadorian students studied in the United States (Institute of International Education, n.d.). In part, the insufficient opportunities for PhD degrees in the country, coupled with public funding allocated towards PhDs completed abroad, fuels the push of domestic students towards graduate programs abroad (Johnson, 2017; Van Hoof, 2015). In recent years, Ecuador has created multiple internationalization policies and initiatives, although the extent to which these policies are currently implemented is uncertain.

Enacted in 2010, the *Prometeo* initiative allocated USD \$7 million to attract international faculty to public universities in Ecuador (Johnson, 2017) in order to conduct research and increase the country's research output. The program supports short-term visits between 3 months and 1 year in length (Van Hoof, 2015). Recent national figures suggest that the program has had a broad reach. According to official government figures, 354,764 Ecuadorian citizens have benefited from the teaching provided by foreign experts and 1,005 peer reviewed articles and books have been published (Secretaría de Educación Superior, Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación, 2016). The success of *Prometeo* was echoed by one country expert interviewed for this study, who suggested that the program has contributed towards “strengthening of Ecuadorian human talent and promoting productive, technological, social, and cultural development”.

In 2013, Ecuador announced plans to create a science and technology hub, the Yachay City of Knowledge (Government of the Republic of Ecuador, n.d.). This ambitious plan signaled a shift from the traditional teaching model of universities in Ecuador towards a teaching and research model. However, due to economic scarcity, the plans for finalizing the city have not come to fruition, and several faculty at-

tracted to Ecuador because of Yachay have left their positions in the country (Rodríguez Mega, 2017).

The internationalization policy efforts in Ecuador are seeing a revival through the Ecuadorian strategic policy plans for 2035, known as Agenda 2035 (Directorio de la Asamblea del Sistema de Educación Superior & SENESCYT, 2016). The tertiary education component of the plan refers extensively to internationalization as one of the key issues to be addressed by the country. The document highlights the importance of creating world class universities, attracting international students and faculty, and ensuring quality exchanges. The document does not currently include prescribed programs and policies, but illustrates the commitment of the government to internationalization issues. In addition, a new Higher Education Law was adopted in Ecuador in 2018. The new law reaffirms the commitment of the country to increase the quality of the tertiary education system, in alignment with global standards, as well as to increase the international competitiveness of the system and to facilitate international cooperation. However, there are no specific references to internationalization efforts (Government of the Republic of Ecuador, 2018).

# Egypt

## Tertiary education system in brief

The total enrollment in the Egyptian tertiary education was close to 2.8 million in 2016, with a gross enrollment ratio of 34.4%. Under the broad categories of public and private sectors, Egyptian tertiary education is composed of diverse types of institutions. The public tertiary education sector is comprised of government universities, technical faculties (which are further classified into technical institutes and health institutes) and Al-Azhar University. The private sector, for its part, includes private universities, private higher institutes, and intermediate private institutes or private middle institutes. As of 2016, the private sector accounted for the 20.6% of the total student enrollment.

The Supreme Council of Universities (SCU) is the highest governing body of public tertiary education, with mandates to set policies and supervise implementation. The SCU is composed of presidents of public universities, as well as up to five members from civil society, and is headed by the Minister of Higher Education (Radwan, 2016). A similar structure is also applicable for both the private and technical institutes, both headed by the Minister. Al-Azhar University has its own Central Administration. For its part, the National Authority for Quality Assurance and Accreditation (NAQAA) is responsible for quality related matters, accrediting both specific study programs and institutions as a whole (Schomaker, 2015).

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

The notion of internationalization has been embedded in Egyptian tertiary education for hundreds of years. This is particularly evident in the history of Al-Azhar University as a global center for Islamic intellectualism. Since its establishment over one thousand years ago, it has attracted students and religious intellectuals from Asia and Africa and its academics traveled around the world to teach Islamic principles and culture (Radwan, 2016). Meanwhile, since the beginning of the 20th century, Egypt has pursued ef-

forts to enhance the country's academic programs and institutions, and its research activity, by sending Egyptians to different countries to obtain qualifications and to facilitate knowledge transfer (Samy & Elshayeb, 2017). Later in the 20th century, the government of Egypt sponsored large numbers of students from African, Arabic, and Islamic countries to study in Egypt.

Internationalization initiatives in Egypt are undertaken on three distinct levels. First, the government of Egypt develops and finances its own initiatives that aim at improving tertiary education. Sometimes, these initiatives—though owned and managed by the government—might be co-financed with partners. Second, Egypt is a signatory of a number of bilateral and multilateral development cooperation agreements that include aspects of tertiary education, research, and/or skills development. Initiatives through such cooperation may be directed at system, institutional, or individual levels. And third, institutional initiatives are formed either through partnerships between Egyptian universities and their counterparts in other countries around the world, or as a result of membership of Egyptian universities in different associations and networks.

*The Sustainable Development Strategy: Egypt Vision 2030* is the overarching long-term development plan that envisions the economic, environmental, and social transformations Egypt will ideally have accomplished by the year 2030. One of the four pillars of Vision 2030 is Knowledge, Innovation and Scientific Research, where issues relevant to tertiary education and research are addressed. In line with the strategic frameworks of Vision 2030, the tertiary education and scientific research strategy was developed with an overall focus on improving Egypt's global competitiveness, improving the employability of graduates, and enhancing the regional and international visibility of Egyptian universities (Sawahel, 2016). This is further translated into specific strategic goals related to internationalization, including expanding partnerships with distinguished



international universities, international mobility of staff and students, expanding internationally funded projects, increasing regional activities of Egyptian universities, and maximizing the return of foreign educated Egyptians (Japan International Cooperation Agency [JICA], 2017).

Mobility of both students and staff has a prominent position in the internationalization of Egyptian tertiary education. In the past several years, Egypt has moved from a cap of no more than 10% of seats being available for foreign students in its public universities, to placing recruitment of international students as one of the major goals of its internationalization efforts. In 2015, the government unveiled its plan to increase international student numbers almost fourfold in three years—from 53,000 to 200,000 (Sawahel, 2015). Egypt has the advantage of low living costs, which promotes its attractiveness to international students, who mainly come from Africa, the Middle East, and Central Asian countries (Radwan, 2016). Moreover, the presence of specialized centers and programs, such as Islamic studies at Al-Azhar University and Arabic language studies for non-native speakers at different institutions, are additional attractions.

Staff mobility is another major dimension of internationalization in the country. While most Egyptian universities have expatriate faculty members, outward mobility of staff is given considerable emphasis. Generally, tertiary education institutions promote the mobility of their staff by offering flexible terms that accommodate leaves for study and research (Samy & Elshayeb, 2017). The unit of the Ministry of Higher Education that is responsible for general administration for missions and academic supervision lists on its website the various schemes on offer for staff mobility. While programs might be financed by different bodies, typical examples of state sponsored programs include the following:

1. Foreign missions: These foster PhD studies in foreign countries for staff who are 35 years of age or younger. The number of opportunities is distributed to universities, research centers, and ministries according to budget.

2. Joint supervision missions: Foreign and Egyptian professors jointly supervise an Egyptian student who studies abroad or in local universities. The program supports the foreign professor to come to Egypt or the Egyptian to travel to the foreign country where the student is studying, for a limited number of days.
3. Scholarships: These opportunities are offered to Egyptian faculty in universities, research centers, and other scientific institutions, and specifically target those who completed their PhD locally (Ministry of Higher Education, n.d.).

Branch campuses constitute another important aspect of internationalization in Egyptian tertiary education. Radwan (2016) reported that Cairo University has had a branch in Khartoum, Sudan since 1955, while Alexandria University has branches in Lebanon, South Sudan, and Chad. The global inventory of branch campuses maintained by the Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT) shows that, as of January 2017, Al-Azhar University was developing branches in Malaysia and in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. On the other hand, the Technical University of Berlin has a campus in El Gouna, Egypt (C-BERT, 2017).

The most visible manifestation of internationalization at home in Egyptian tertiary education is the presence of various institutes, departments, and programs that focus on the study of international and regional affairs. Examples include: the Cairo University Center for Languages and Arabic Culture, as well as its African Studies and Research Institute, and African Urban Studies Center; the Institute for Research and Strategic Studies of Nile Basin Countries at Fayoum University; and the Center of Israeli Studies, the Institute of Near East Civilization, and the Institute of Asian Studies and Research at Zagazig University. Such institutes and centers serve not only as an attraction for foreign students, but they also foster international content in their curricula. However, on its own, this does not necessarily reflect widespread internationalization of the curricula or teaching processes in Egyptian tertiary education.

Both public and private universities host joint degree programs (Radwan, 2016). Egyptian universities also frequently foster international conferences and seminars on various topics. A quick glance at the tertiary education news reports aggregated by the International Network for Higher Education in Africa (INHEA) demonstrates this point. Internationally collaborative research and publications are also among the areas of the strategic emphasis in the future of Egyptian tertiary education (Sawahel, 2016).

Meanwhile, the internationalization of tertiary education in Egypt, particularly the inbound mobility of students and staff, is challenged by security concerns.

# Ethiopia

## Tertiary education system in brief

A defining characteristic of the Ethiopian tertiary education system is its expansion in the past two decades. At the turn of the 21st century, the system had only two public universities and a handful of private institutions, with fewer than 40,000 students. As of the 2016/2017 academic year, the student population had reached over 780,000 within 45 public and four private universities, and more than 100 other junior institutions in the private sector (Ministry of Education [MoE], 2000, 2018). As of 2014, the gross enrollment ratio has also increased to 8.1% from just about 1% twenty years ago. Despite a large number of institutions, the private sector accounts for less than 15% of the total enrollment.

As a result of growing emphasis on science and technology fields as drivers of economic development, there are now two public universities of science and technology and an increasing number of centers of excellence focused on these areas housed in other public institutions.

The Ministry of Science and Higher Education, which very recently spun off from the Ministry of Education, is responsible for the overall governance of tertiary education, while each public institution has its own board. Under the ministry, there are two semi-autonomous agencies with different responsibilities. The Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA) ensures that every institution and study program meets the required quality standards and maintains a list of accredited programs and institutions. The Higher Education Strategy Center (HESC), for its part, is mainly responsible for undertaking studies and providing policy recommendations to the ministry.

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

Ethiopia does not have a comprehensive national tertiary education internationalization strategy. However, three documents contain policies perti-

nent to internationalization. The 1994 *Education and Training Policy* remains the foundation of all policies, strategies, and programs relevant to all levels of education. The policy provides the general direction for education, among which is the need to emphasize international perspectives in educational content and the production of citizens with an international outlook. Similar notions are reflected in the *Higher Education Proclamation of 2009*. The proclamation is a broad legal foundation that frames the operation of tertiary education by identifying roles and duties of major actors, both in the private and public domains (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2009). It makes reference to international good practices and institutional cooperation, as well as competitiveness of graduates at the international level, as objectives for tertiary education. These two documents, although making reference to relevant ideas, do not clearly articulate internationalization as a strategic issue.

The fifth edition of the *Education Sector Development Program (ESDP-V)* of the government of Ethiopia, published in 2015, is the first of its kind to explicitly refer to internationalization of tertiary education as an area of strategic focus. Not only does it acknowledge the strategic importance of internationalization, it also specifies priorities in certain area, such as recruitment of international students. More importantly, the document stipulates that during the five year period of its implementation (from 2015/2016 to 2019/2020) a national taskforce will be established to organize consultation sessions and conferences, and to develop a national internationalization policy and strategy. The policy and strategy are yet to come.

Promoting student exchange programs and overseas exposure visits for staff are among the main forms of mobility targeted in the five-year plan. These activities are mandated to the institutions, and no specific target is established at the national level. As part of the capacity development endeavor, academic staff are sponsored (by the government of



Ethiopia and its development partners) for graduate studies in different countries. Other initiatives, such as the *Betre-Science Scholarship Program of the Ministry of Science and Technology*, are emerging on the national scene. Meanwhile, a number of doctoral programs are being undertaken in collaboration with foreign universities, mostly from Europe. Staff mobility commonly takes place within the framework of institutional collaborations.

While degree-seeking outbound student mobility and short-term (credit seeking) inbound student mobility have been common for a long time, the recruitment of degree-seeking foreign students is gaining momentum as a strategic direction. ESDP-V encourages universities—particularly those in areas bordering Ethiopia’s neighboring countries—to target the recruitment of foreign students, presumably from those neighboring countries. The number of foreign students in the country has shown considerable increase in the past few years. This can be mainly attributed to refugee education programs undertaken by the government of Ethiopia and the United Nations High Commission on Refugees (UNHCR); according to a 2017 UNHCR report, these programs reached 2,300 refugee students, mainly from Eritrea, Somalia, and South Sudan. There are also self-sponsored refugee students (often sponsored by family and relatives in the diaspora) who attend various public and private institutions. ESDP-V also encourages universities to open branch campuses in neighboring countries.

Additionally, Ethiopia has established a regulatory regime for cross border education. The Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA) is mandated to grant accreditation to, and oversee the quality of, cross border delivery of tertiary education, as it does for local institutions.

Pertinent to internationalization at home, education in Ethiopia is expected to inculcate an international outlook among students. This is stipulated as one of the objectives of Ethiopian education and training: “To provide education that can produce citizens who possess national and international outlook on the environment, protect natural resources and historical heritages of the country” (Transitional Government of Ethiopia, 1994, p. 11). This is reiterat-

ed in the tertiary education proclamation, with a view to improving the international competitiveness of the country. This has direct implications for the internationalization of the curriculum and the incorporation of insights designed to foster global citizenship in the content and processes of education. However, no further specifics are given for the implementation or monitoring of the policy recommendation.

International collaboration is a key aspect of internationalization. ESDP-V has specified that universities shall plan and execute institutional collaborations in the areas of both academic programs and research. The plan aims for 10% of academic programs and 20% of research to be jointly performed with non-Ethiopian universities by 2020. While this should be overseen by the semi-autonomous government agency known as the Education Strategy Center, each institution is required to establish an international liaison office to facilitate collaboration. Indeed, institutional collaboration is one of the strong areas of longstanding international engagement by Ethiopian institutions. Nonetheless, as Tamrat and Teferra (2018) noted, such collaborations are undermined by the imbalance between Ethiopian institutions and their northern partners, in terms of financial strength and institutional capacity.

Another area of the international dimension in Ethiopian tertiary education is the participation of expatriate academic staff. According to ESDP-V, the target for the 2019/2020 academic year is to increase the share of foreign academic staff from 8% to 10%. Although this is another international feature in the education process, there are two caveats to note. First, this is a temporary solution to address the domestic supply limitations of the system. Considerable expansion in graduate programs is underway to increase the number of local academic staff with master’s and doctoral degrees, which should eventually replace the expatriates. Second, the hiring of expatriate staff is driven by capacity gaps rather than internationalization goals. There is no evidence that the nature of the education process or research productivity is any different with expatriates than local staff.

Despite the absence of a national policy or strategy specifically focused on internationalization, in

practice, different aspects of internationalization are observable at institutional and national levels. However, these initiatives seem to be fragmented, not well planned or organized with clear objectives. As a result, their efficiency and sustainability are questionable. On the other hand, there is a promising development at the national level, which recognizes internationalization of tertiary education as a key strategic area. This new direction is in its early stages, such that its details are yet to be outlined and integrated with the broader tertiary education strategy.

# India

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## Tertiary education system in brief

India has the second largest tertiary education system in the world, enrolling an estimated 34.6 million students (Ministry of Human Resource Development Department of Higher Education, 2016). Yet, according to World Bank figures, the gross enrollment ratio in tertiary education has only reached 26.9% in 2016. In the same year, 57.3% of students were enrolled in private tertiary education institutions. The system is highly diversified and includes central universities, state universities, deemed-to-be universities, institutions of national importance, and institutions under state legislature acts. Different institutional types follow central, provincial, or state jurisdictions, under the supervision of the University Grants Commission (Ministry of Human Resource Development Department of Higher Education, n.d.). For its part, the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) undertakes similar regulatory work with technical colleges. Both the size and diversification of the system pose complications for centralized internationalization policies. However, India is slowly progressing toward establishing a national internationalization policy.

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

India is most clearly perceived as a source country for internationally mobile students. In the academic year 2016/2017, Indian students accounted for 17.3% of all international students worldwide (IIE, 2017). At the same time, India is becoming an attractive country for students in the region. In 2012, the country hosted 33,156 foreign students, with Nepal as the leading sending country (UNESCO & Government of India, 2014). An increasing number of international providers are setting up campuses in India (Mitra, 2010). In addition to student mobility, internationalization at home is becoming a more significant feature of the Indian tertiary education system. However, this is still mostly a grassroots endeavor, driven independently by a small number of institutions, with

limited unified policy guidance from the government (Mathews, 2014; Yeravdekar & Tiwari, 2014).

The Indian government started to pay attention to matters of internationalization and their potential as early as 2002. Various bills, programs, and committees have established goals and steered internationalization in the country since that time. The *Tenth Five Year Plan 2002-2007* (Planning Commission, 2002) discussed the imperative to leverage internationalization. The plan coincided with the creation of the *Committee on Promotion of Indian Education Abroad*, which was mandated to address not only the promotion of Indian education abroad, but also the regulation of operations by foreign providers in India. In 2005, the Indian government initiated the National Knowledge Commission. The *Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017)* (Planning Commission, 2013) includes an increased number of internationalization provisions, such as the creation of additional scholarships for overseas students, in an attempt to attract and retain international talent in India and to retain local talent.

The strategic efforts to enhance internationalization have at times been affected by slow bureaucratic and legislative processes. For example, the Indian government has been attempting to pass the *Foreign Education Provider (Regulation) Bill* since 2010 (Singh, 2010), without success. Similarly, the proposal to create 20 world class universities was deferred in 2017, although it was approved a year later. While those obstacles have slowed internationalization processes in India, the country has significant potential to become a model for internationalization in a complex and growing tertiary education system.

This potential is manifested in the Study in India Plan (SII), presented in April 2018. The government of India aims to attract international students in order to bring diversity to Indian classrooms and to leverage the soft power potential of education through the program (SII). This initiative is led by the Ministry of Human Resource Development and is supported by Ministry of Commerce and Industries,

the Ministry of External Affairs, and the Ministry of Home Affairs. The implementation body of SII is Educational Consultants India Limited (EdCIL), a public sector entity under the Ministry of Human Resource Development and the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce & Industries' (FICCI) Higher Education Division.

The SII initiative intends to attract students for full-time degree programs, as well as for short-term programs, from 30 primarily neighboring and African countries, including Nepal, Vietnam, Kazakhstan, Saudi Arabia, Nigeria, Thailand, Malaysia, Egypt, Kuwait, Iran, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Bhutan, and Rwanda. Based on their academic scores, students will be offered full or partial scholarships. Students from developed countries and regions, like the United States and Europe, will be targeted for short-term and student exchange programs. The government hopes to attract 200,000 international students to Indian university campuses by 2023. Sixty tertiary education institutions with ratings in the top 100 of the National Institutional Ranking Framework and National Assessment and Accreditation Council have been identified as institutions where these foreign students will be placed. A pilot program was launched for 2018/2019 to test these opportunities (Yeravdekar & de Wit, 2018).

As Yeravdekar and de Wit (2018) observe, "this initiative will require a lot of strategy, planning and good will from the government. It also requires that participating universities develop an effective ecosystem to accept and support foreign students. The cities where these foreign students are placed will also play a major role in integrating foreign students and insuring against discrimination. Quality of education, services, infrastructure and human resources to recruit, support and train these students are challenges that need to be addressed to make this effort to become a global player in the international student market a success."

# Kazakhstan

## Tertiary education system in brief

Tertiary education in Kazakhstan has undergone significant changes in recent years. Between 2010 and 2016, the number of students enrolled in tertiary education institutions in the country decreased by 21%, from 756,706 in 2010 to 623,534 in 2016. However, the gross enrollment ratio increased slightly during the same time period, from 45.7% in 2010 to 46.1% in 2016. Starting in 2014, more than 50% of students were enrolled in private tertiary education institutions. The country has placed emphasis on education as a tool for economic growth by promoting quality and investing in education at all levels, in light of its goal of becoming one of the top 30 most competitive economies by 2050. A key component of this effort is the aim to consolidate a highly educated labor force. This is apparent in the national vision for education, which is focused on “increasing competitiveness of education and development of human capital through ensuring access to quality education for sustainable economic growth” (The Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2010). A growing number of reforms attempt to increase the global relevance of the tertiary education system (OECD, 2017b). In 2010, Kazakhstan joined the Bologna process. In addition, the country has initiated a number of initiatives and policies aimed at increasing employability, quality, access, and the professionalization of the academic labor force (Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2015).

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

Internationalization of tertiary education is embedded in broader national education strategies and plans and is aligned with domestic educational goals. However, the internationalization strategy of Kazakhstan has a main focus on student and staff mobility.

Established in 1994, the flagship internationalization initiative of Kazakhstan is the *Bolashak International Scholarship Program* (British Council & DAAD,

2014). The program offers scholarships to domestic students who have secured seats at top universities abroad, with the condition that they return to Kazakhstan after their graduation. Altogether, over 11,000 students have studied abroad under the Bolashak scholarship scheme since its inception (Center for International Programs, n.d.). An evaluation of the Bolashak program (Perna, Orosz, & Jumakulov, 2015) suggested that recipients are easily integrated into the Kazakh labor market and that the program, while imperfect, is viewed as a positive initiative that supports human capital consolidation in the country.

The creation of Nazarbayev University in 2010 is also viewed as a major step in the direction of internationalization for the country (OECD, 2017b). The university attracts international faculty and international students and represents a pipeline to elite universities worldwide (Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2015).

Currently, three main documents govern the internationalization of tertiary education in Kazakhstan. The *State Program of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011–2020* includes limited provisions on internationalization, but it offers provisions for the enhancement of internationalization at home. The program includes an extension of the *Bolashak International Scholarship Program* that facilitates staff mobility. Secondary education teachers are able to conduct mobility periods abroad aimed at improving their English speaking ability. This provision follows the view that, in order to facilitate internationalization, Kazakhstan needs to increase the English language proficiency of its faculty (OECD, 2017b). At the same time, loans are made available to faculty at tertiary education institutions to facilitate multi-language teaching. While no specific programs are outlined, the document references student mobility and the creation of the Center for the Bologna Process and Academic Mobility (The Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2010). The program was revised in 2016 as part of the *State Program of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2016-2019*.

The *Academic Mobility Strategy in Kazakhstan for 2012-2020* is a more targeted internationalization policy document. While brief, the document highlights goals and objectives aimed at enhancing the quality assurance of external and incoming mobility; the promotion of multi-language teaching; and the expansion of partnerships with overseas universities and international organizations. This plan aims to better align the Kazakh tertiary education system with the Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Area. This plan is congruent with *The National Plan 100 Concrete Steps*, proposed by President Nursultan Nazarbayev in 2015, which includes a provision to transition to English as the main language of instruction in high schools and universities, with the purpose of increasing the competitiveness of the tertiary education sector.

In their evaluation of the tertiary education system in Kazakhstan, the OECD (2017b) observes “limited inclusion of international examples and contents” in the curriculum, thus suggesting that the internationalization of the curriculum is at inception stages in the country. At the same time, the report comments on the extensive efforts to increase internationalization in the country and to use internationalization as a tool to address broader domestic needs. As the current internationalization strategies are due to expire in the next several years, there is an opportunity in the coming period for Kazakhstan to better integrate both internationalization at home and internationalization abroad in its national internationalization strategies.

One of the complications of evaluating Kazakhstan’s national policy for internationalization is due to the fragmentation of internationalization provisions across multiple strategies and policy documents. In addition, multiple divergent criteria may be used to gauge effectiveness. For the purpose of this report, we use the opinion of experts to hint at the effectiveness of the national internationalization policy in Kazakhstan. Consultation with four country experts suggests a mixed degree of effectiveness for national internationalization policies. The experts consulted concur that it may be too early to evaluate the impact of the national internationalization strat-

egy, given that many of its provisions have been implemented recently and some provisions have not been implemented at all to date. Experts point towards the limited success of the internationalization policies in attracting and retaining international faculty at Kazakh universities, as well as the limited impact of mobility periods among Kazakh PhD students. Experts also suggest that rigidity of the Bolashak scholarship scheme has limited greater possibility for international cooperation. Still, while its implementation could benefit from improvements, some experts believe that the Bolashak scholarship scheme has increased the international profile of the tertiary education system in Kazakhstan.

As a system, Kazakhstan has embraced internationalization. The country has made important progress by considering, adopting, and allocating resources towards implementing internationalization policies. In addition, researchers in Kazakhstan have published significant scholarship that evaluates the internationalization strategies of the country, both at a national and institutional level. Their voices may contribute towards the consolidation and improvement of national internationalization policies in Kazakhstan.



# Malaysia

## Tertiary education system in brief

In Malaysia, the number of students enrolled in tertiary education increased by 20% between 2010 and 2016, from 1,061,421 in 2010 to 1,336,550 in 2016. The gross enrollment ratio in tertiary education reflects this jump in enrollment, having increased from 37.3% in 2010 to 44.1% in 2016. In 2016, 48.1% of students were enrolled in private tertiary education institutions, an increase from 43.1% in 2010. In recent years, Malaysia has strengthened its efforts to increase the quality and the capacity of its tertiary education system, in part due to the increased outflow of domestic students abroad (Morshidi, Razak, & Koo, 2011). While the number of government scholarships for domestic students to study abroad has decreased, incentives have been created for domestic and international private universities to provide market relevant programs (Sohail & Saeed, 2003). In 2007, Malaysia created an excellence initiative aimed at propelling national universities toward global recognition (Chan, 2013).

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

National policies and strategies that promote the internationalization of tertiary education in Malaysia are connected to the broader national goal to see Malaysia make the transition from a developing country to a developed country by 2020 (Ahmad, 2015; Azman, Sirat, & Ahmad, 2014). The expansion and international branding of tertiary education are viewed as key elements in creating a “well-educated and well-trained population” that may contribute towards the “country’s growth” (Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, 2011, p. 18). Two main strategic documents steer the internationalization of tertiary education in the country.

*The Internationalization Policy for Higher Education 2011* is designed as an operational strategy aimed at achieving the goal of attracting 150,000 international students to Malaysia by 2020 (Ministry of High-

er Education Malaysia, 2011). Given this goal, the strategy is generally regarded as an example of a mobility-driven internationalization initiative (Trahar, 2014). However, the document covers multiple key aspects of the internationalization process, including inbound and outbound mobility for students in order to build and attract talent, faculty mobility to enhance research and development activities, internationalization relevant trainings for faculty and staff at home and abroad, community integration, and institutional governance. The strategy applies to both public and private tertiary education institutions. As such, in their typology of internationalization strategies, Helms et al. (2015) categorize Malaysia as an example of a country with a comprehensive internationalization strategy, as well as a student mobility strategy, with an inbound mobility focus.

*Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education)* sets directions for changes across all aspects of the tertiary education system, with a focus on the following: access, quality, equity, unity, and efficiency. While not the primary focus of the document, the internationalization of tertiary education is embedded either explicitly or implicitly in multiple “shifts” advanced by the strategic plan. The blueprint document includes key aspects such as: plans to increase the attraction of international talent and to promote national talent internationally; aims to consolidate Malaysia as an internationally recognized education hub and to enhance global partnerships; an interest in streamlining and easing immigration procedures; the hope to increase the proportion of international postgraduate students; a vision to transform online learning into an integral part of tertiary education and making it available globally; and a desire to increase the efficiency of the provision of services for international students (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015).

In addition, the Ministry of Education operates *Education Malaysia Global Services*, an online platform that operates as a one stop center for international student services. The website is used to

manage and process the applications and renewal of international student visas and the provision of medical insurance.

Malaysia demonstrates a strong commitment towards comprehensive internationalization, a wide-reach approach to implementation, and meaningful alignment between national goals and tertiary education internationalization. As such, Malaysia is an important example of a concerted approach to a national internationalization policy that should be observed carefully over time. As its efforts in this area evolve and mature, useful lessons for other countries and context may be discerned.



# Singapore

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## Tertiary education system in brief

Since the creation of Singapore as an independent city-state in 1965, education has played an essential role in the development and the transformation of the country. The country has progressed from having only two universities to hosting some of the most prestigious universities in Asia. Singapore is one of the countries in the world with the highest gross enrollment ratio, having reached 83.9% in 2016. Yet Singapore has also registered a 21% decrease in enrollment in tertiary education between 2010 and 2016, from 236,891 students in 2010 to 195,125 students in 2016. In 2016, 35.5% of students were enrolled in private tertiary education institutions. In Singapore, tertiary education policy is an extension of deliberate multi-year policy planning, which is embedded in a broader vision for the country. As such, any tertiary education policy initiative benefits from sustained government support. Tertiary education in Singapore has received substantial international attention due to its continuous innovations, more recently in the arena of internationalization.

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

While Singapore does not have one single national internationalization policy, the country has developed several initiatives and adopted policies that would typically be included in such a document. Mention of internationalization in education policy documents dates back to 1959, prompted by a desire to promote cohesion among a very multicultural and multiethnic population (Daquila, 2013). English is the medium of instruction in schools, the government runs a scholarship scheme for Singaporeans who have been admitted at top universities abroad, and internationalization at home initiatives start in early education (Vidovich, 2004). In 2015 alone, Singapore attracted 75,000 international students (Alfaro & Ketels, 2016). However, two distinct tertiary education internationalization policies have gathered interna-

tional attention. The description of these policies is based on secondary literature, as the original policy documents are not publicly available at the moment.

The *World Class University Programme*, enacted in 1997, aimed to attract 10 top universities from around the world to set up centers of excellence in Singapore and thus establish Singapore as a regional and global education hub. These campuses were meant to attract global talent to Singapore as well as to increase the quality and diversity of education available in Singapore (Ng & Tan, 2010). As a response to this policy, multiple reputable universities established campuses in Singapore, including the University of Chicago, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Columbia University, and the London School of Economics. The establishment of a few of these centers of excellence has not been successful. For example, only two months after it started its operations, the University of New South Wales announced its closure and departure from Singapore (Chan & Ng, 2008). Similar closures followed, including the New York University Tisch School of the Arts in 2012 and the University of Chicago Booth School of Business in 2013. However, the program managed to diversify the tertiary education landscape and to transform the city-state into a transnational education hub that provides both international distance education programs and access to foreign campuses in Singapore (Ho Mok, 2008).

Enacted in 2002, the *Global Schoolhouse Programme* initially aimed to attract 150,000 international students to Singapore and to increase the tertiary education contribution to the economy by 5% by 2015. The rationale behind the plan was to tap into the global market for tertiary education and primarily attract self-paying students, but also to attract international talent and produce long-term economic benefits (Waring, 2014). A less discussed aspect of this policy is the attempt to attract foreign faculty to the country, a policy that also registered mixed results, with faculty retention being curbed by bureau-

cratic burdens. The goals of the initial policy have softened over time as the policy has attracted local backlash from domestic students who felt crowded out from university seats by international students (Ng, 2013). As such the government recalibrated its policy goals to increase domestic participation rates in tertiary education (Waring, 2014).

Despite the setbacks of the *Global Schoolhouse Programme* and the *World Class University Programme*, universities in Singapore are examples of good practice in the arena of internationalization. In part, it is the very ambitious goals of the national policies that make the state of internationalization in the country seem less than successful. Indeed, these policies have made significant impacts in promoting international cooperation and increasing the quality of the Singaporean tertiary education system.

# South Africa

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## Tertiary education system in brief

South Africa has 26 public universities and over 100 private institutions, which offer training focused on specific academic fields. The tertiary education system also consists of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) colleges. While none of the private institutions can be considered fully-fledged universities, the public institutions are differentiated into three categories: 11 traditional universities, 6 universities of technology, and 8 comprehensive universities (Boshoff, Jooste, & Pillay, 2018). As of 2016, the South African tertiary education system had a total enrollment of a little over one million students, hitting a gross enrollment ratio of 20.5%. Only 7.4% of students were enrolled in private institutions, as of 2016.

The overall responsibility for system-level governance of tertiary education rests with the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). The Council on Higher Education (CHE) is an independent statutory body responsible for the quality of tertiary education, which, among other things, performs program accreditation and institutional audits (CHE, 2019). The DHET website maintains the list of accredited institutions, along with the specific qualifications for which they are accredited.

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

South Africa recently crafted the *Policy Framework for Internationalization of Higher Education in South Africa*, which is under discussion as of the writing of this report, and is expected to be promulgated soon. The policy framework not only acknowledges the practice of internationalization without the presence of a national policy or strategy, it also underlines the potential benefits and risks associated with internationalization activities. Therefore, it provides an overall framework within which government bodies, tertiary education institutions, non-statutory membership organizations, and other stakeholders can

create a common direction for internationalization.

The policy framework asserts that internationalization activities need to be done in a manner that prioritizes the national interests of South Africa. However, South Africa has also made commitments at the regional level to the Southern African Development Community (SADC), and in relation to continental-level collective development plans (such as the African Union's *Agenda 2063*). The country is also a signatory to regional tertiary education specific conventions, such as the *Arusha/Addis Convention*.

According to the draft policy framework, the major rationales that guide internationalization efforts in the country include: opportunities for institutional collaborations, both in academic programs and research; the need to create a common framework at the national level to take advantage, and to avert the risks, of partnerships; an interest in increasing the global competitiveness of South African tertiary education; a desire to improve quality and intellectual diversity in all functions of tertiary education; and an aspiration to enhance the public good provided by tertiary education to the benefit of society.

On the other hand, internationalization is seen to have broader strategic benefits to South African tertiary education, including: enhancing reputation, quality and relevance; strengthening international research collaboration towards improving knowledge production and innovation; equipping students and staff with intercultural skills and competencies; attracting and retaining talent; opening up South African tertiary education to academics and researchers of novice and senior expertise; contributing to the overall development of tertiary education institutions; and improving opportunities for strategic alliances in terms of bilateral, multilateral and regional collaborations. Within the context of comprehensive internationalization, the policy framework also outlines various elements of internationalization abroad and at home.

The Department of Home Affairs and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) are the two

agencies that facilitate the enrollment and attendance of inbound international students at South African institutions. The former enables smooth immigration processes for international students and their immediate families, while the latter undertakes assessment and verification of the qualifications international students present. In line with the harmonization initiatives in place on the African continent, institutions are required to develop credit accumulation and transfer systems, as well as to provide detailed study records and degree supplements for international students. Financial subsidies available at public institutions in South Africa do not make distinctions between international and domestic students. However, institutions can apply differentiated tuition fees for international and domestic students. The exception to this is that students from SADC countries are charged the same as domestic South African students.

Outbound student mobility takes different forms: through government agreements with other countries; as part of a program offered with a foreign university; through exchange programs; and through independent decisions of individual students to enroll at foreign universities. South African institutions are required to create mechanisms to protect the academic and other interests of their outbound students who enroll at foreign institution through collaborative arrangements. The policy framework provides details with regard to the good practices expected in the management of student mobility.

In recognition of the positive impact of the free circulation of people and ideas, the mobility of staff is highly encouraged. Institutions are required to create academic and research opportunities abroad for their staff, as well as to appoint the best minds from elsewhere, while observing race and gender diversity initiatives. International initiatives that promote the mobility of scholars and scientists, such as the *Diaspora Fellowship Program*, are welcomed and highly encouraged. As in the case of student mobility, concerned government agencies are required to coordinate and streamline their services and efforts to facilitate immigration processes for international staff.

The immense contribution of international re-

search collaboration in terms of innovation and knowledge transfer substantiates South Africa's commitment to encouraging international engagements in research. Partnerships are encouraged with governments, foundations, and agencies of various sorts in order to maximize opportunities for research funding and access to facilities for South African researchers and institutions. In addition to the co-authorship of publications with foreign scientists, a number of different dimensions of international research collaboration are outlined, which the Department of Higher Education and Training is expected to encourage through incentives.

Another major aspect of internationalization addressed in the policy framework is the cross-border delivery of education, where collaborative arrangements are specifically emphasized. The policy framework elaborates on cross-border collaborative delivery, outlining the rationales, conditions, accreditation issues, types of qualifications, as well as risks, limitations, and policy concerns.

The purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into formal and informal curricula and the learning environment is meant to bring the benefits of international education to all students, and not just those who are mobile. Cost effectiveness is another reason South African institutions are encouraged to pursue internationalization at home. Increased international staff mobility and sufficient emphasis on informal curriculum are highlighted as a way to maximize internationalization at home. International and intercultural elements are said to go beyond the formal learning environment into the learning opportunities within local communities.

Institutions are reminded, however, to make sure that the internationalization of their curricula does not negate their obligations with regard to curriculum transformation imperatives, which include, among other things, responsiveness to the local context and promotion of social justice. Quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms in place are meant to ensure that tertiary education programs, especially those offered with international partners, are relevant to the educational needs of South Africa. This also applies to programs delivered online.

Overall, the internationalization of South African tertiary education has been steadily developing, even in the absence of a national policy framework. Experts assert that the inclusive and participatory nature of the development of the national policy framework gives hope for its anticipated success. They also highlight two points that may allow internationalization in South Africa to serve as an example of good practice for others. First is the overall emphasis of the policy on comprehensive internationalization. In addition to the major dimensions of internationalization abroad— particularly mobility—the policy encourages the curriculum and the general tertiary education environment to have international characteristics. Second, due to South Africa’s expressed commitment to regional development, students from member countries of SADC have been enabled to access South African tertiary education with considerable ease.

# United Arab Emirates

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## Tertiary education system in brief

Since the 1990s, the tertiary education system of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) has rapidly expanded. Today there are more than 70 tertiary education institutions in the UAE, while the exact number fluctuates due to the frequent opening, closure, and merging of institutions. Tertiary education institutions can generally be categorized into three groups: public institutions, private institutions, and global partnerships. There are three federal public institutions under the purview of the Ministry of Education – the UAE University, Zayed University, and the Higher Colleges of Technology (HCT). The HCT system is the largest in terms of student population, offering four levels of credentials – diploma, higher diploma, bachelor’s, and master’s – in its 17 colleges across the country.

In 2016, the student population in UAE tertiary education was 159,553, doubling from 2007. An overwhelming majority of students (70.9%) are enrolled in private institutions. A large majority of students are enrolled in undergraduate programs, with only 13.6% and less than 1%, respectively, in master’s and doctoral level programs (Kamal & Trines, 2018). It is also worth noting that, reflective of the overall population distribution, out of the seven emirates, two (Dubai and Abu Dhabi) account for almost 60% of the student population and more than 70% of the private institutions.

Overall, the Ministry of Education is responsible for matters related to tertiary education and scientific research. Under the purview of the Ministry, the Commission for Academic Accreditation (CAA) conducts the accreditation and registration of all tertiary education institutions and their respective academic programs in the UAE (Government of the UAE, 2018).

## Internationalization strategy, policies, and plans

In 2017, the Ministry of Education of the UAE launched the *National Strategy for Higher Education 2030*. This overarching strategy—set in alignment with the socioeconomic development vision of the country—has four broad areas of emphasis: quality, efficiency, innovation, and harmonization. The strategy aims to improve tertiary education and to develop the UAE labor market in order to enable sustained growth in key areas of knowledge, the economy, and entrepreneurship (Government of UAE, n.d.). Due to the unavailability of the document, exploring further details relevant to internationalization was not possible. Nonetheless, in an analysis of the approach to the internationalization of tertiary education in the UAE, Alsharari (2018, p. 372) noted that the “vague definition of internationalization strategy” is one of its weaknesses. David (2017) also observed that, overall, internationalization in the UAE is understood as a business model as much as it is perceived as an educational opportunity. Internationalization is, however, one of the most dominant forces in the dynamics that shape tertiary education in the UAE and is given high emphasis.

Student mobility is one of the defining features of internationalization in the country. The UAE has a high outbound student mobility ratio, in relation to its total student population; in 2016, there were 11,249 degree seeking Emirati students studying in universities abroad. This number has shown an increase of about one-third as compared to figures from 2011. The United Kingdom and the United States are the most popular destinations for outbound Emirati students, accounting for 30% and 27.5%, respectively, while India ranks third in popularity, receiving 13% of outbound Emirati students (Kamal & Trines, 2018).

In recent years, the UAE has been pursuing the goal to become a tertiary education hub in the region, attracting students primarily from the Middle

East, North Africa, and South Asia (Alsharari, 2018). In a 2017 study by the British Council, the UAE was rated as a country with a very favorable policy for student mobility and international tertiary education broadly, standing on par with countries such as Australia, France, and the United Kingdom (Ilieva, Killingley, Tsiligiris, & Peak, 2017). With about a 60% increase as compared to 2011, in 2016 there were 77,463 in-bound degree seeking students in the UAE, of whom the largest portion (17%) were from India. This is mainly reflective of labor migration trends into the UAE (Kamal & Trines, 2018). Staff mobility is also a strong aspect of tertiary education in the country. Most foreign providers and UAE institutions rely heavily on expatriate staff (David, 2017). Enduring and prevalent partnerships (Alsharari, 2018) between UAE institutions and foreign counterparts, as well as the relative abundance of funding for research collaborations, creates considerable opportunities for staff mobility.

Transnational education (TNE) is another strength of the UAE. TNE in the UAE takes two primary forms: branch campuses and distance/online delivery by foreign universities. The UAE is one of the countries in the world with the highest number of branch campuses of foreign universities, perhaps only second to China. According to data from 2017, with 34 branch campuses actively operational or under development, the UAE hosts institutions from 12 diverse tertiary education systems, including the United Kingdom, the United States, and India (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017). Foreign universities use both franchising and direct investment modes of in-person delivery in the UAE. TNE is also facilitated through online education. As of 2016, there were 105 foreign universities accredited to offer online education in the UAE. About three quarters of them were from the United Kingdom and the United States (David, 2017). Overall, the UAE was ranked third among 38 different countries by the British Council study for the convenience it offers for TNE. The general score was based on three criteria: international mobility of educational programs and providers, quality assurance mechanisms for in-bound and outbound TNE, and recognition of TNE qualifications (Ilieva et al., 2017).

Overall, tertiary education in the UAE can be considered diverse in two aspects: the diversity of providers and the diversity of the student and staff population. The student body in tertiary education is highly diverse in the UAE due to the fact that the country attracts students from numerous countries, but also because of the diversity of the UAE's own population. David (2017) noted that (using 2014 data) there were foreign students in the UAE tertiary education from 160 countries, while 94.8% of academic staff were expatriates. This provides a very diverse and multicultural learning environment. Meanwhile, a number of institutions adopt partially or fully foreign or international curricula, in collaboration with foreign universities.

In general, it is important to underline that the various internationalization initiatives, such as TNE, are dependent on directions from each emirate. Dubai, for instance, has a robust system under its Academic City initiative, which has attracted several foreign institutions. This is followed by other emirates, as well. However, the recently announced overarching national strategy for tertiary education can usher in a degree of similarity and comparable efforts across all of the emirates.



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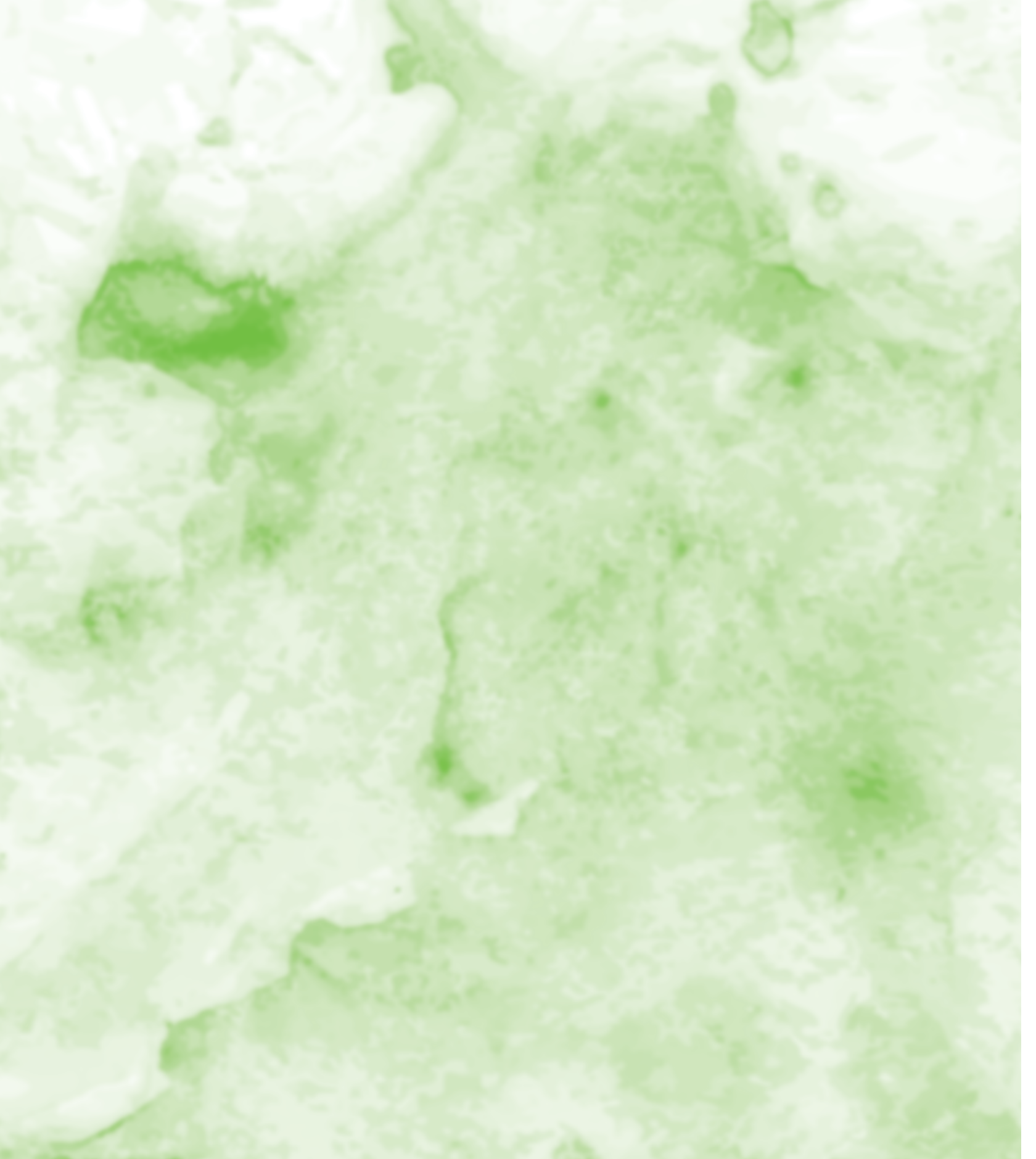
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