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# CONTENTS

Sr. No.	TITLE & NAME OF THE AUTHOR (S)	Page No.
1.	<b>SMART SKILLS: BRIDGING THE SKILL GAP FOR YOUTH EMPLOYMENT</b> <i>DR. MANJARI AGARWAL &amp; K. K. PANDE</i>	1
2.	<b>THE NEED TO FOCUS ON HRD CLIMATE IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS: AN EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT</b> <i>DR. PRAVEEN CHOUGALE &amp; DR. GURUNATH J. FAGARE</i>	8
3.	<b>PERFORMANCE OF INDO-RUSSIAN TRADE DYNAMICS: AN APPRAISAL FOR THE YEAR 2003-2006</b> <i>MANMOHAN SINGH &amp; S. P. KAUSHIK</i>	13
4.	<b>KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE OF GENERAL PRACTITIONERS REGARDING PSYCHIATRIC DISORDERS IN VADODARA CITY</b> <i>GAURAV JD &amp; NIRAJ P</i>	16
5.	<b>EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF SCHEDULED TRIBES IN COIMBATORE DISTRICT</b> <i>DR. R. ANNAPOORANI &amp; M. SHANTHI</i>	19
6.	<b>REVEALED COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGE AND TRADE FLOWS AMONG SAARC COUNTRIES: AN ANALYSIS</b> <i>DR. B. P. SARATH CHANDRAN</i>	24
7.	<b>FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS AND WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN KERALA AND TAMIL NADU</b> <i>DR. SANTHA S.</i>	31
8.	<b>CORPORATE GOVERNANCE AND BUSINESS ETHICS IN IT SECTOR: SOME REFLECTIONS</b> <i>DR. BADIUDDIN AHMED, SYED HAMID MOHIUDDIN QUADRI &amp; MOHAMMED ABDUL LATEEF</i>	38
9.	<b>WORK-LIFE BALANCE (WLB): A CAUSE OF CONCERN IN BANKING SECTOR</b> <i>RITU ATHEYA &amp; DR. RENU ARORA</i>	42
10.	<b>PRIVATIZATION – IS IT A SOLUTION TO PRIORITIZATION?</b> <i>DR. JEEMON JOSEPH &amp; SHIBU ITTY MATHEW</i>	46
11.	<b>A STUDY OF STRESS AMONG FACULTY MEMBERS IN COLLEGES OF JALANDHAR</b> <i>MEGHA JAIN &amp; DR. INDERPAL SINGH</i>	49
12.	<b>HRM PRACTICES IN THE NEW ECONOMY</b> <i>THOTA AMRUTHA VALLI &amp; DR. P. ARUNKUMAR</i>	55
13.	<b>THE IMPACT OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT ON THE ECONOMIC, CULTURAL, ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOCIAL DIMENSIONS: PERCEPTION OF RESIDENTS' OF GONDER AND ITS NEARBY RURAL COMMUNITIES IN ETHIOPIA</b> <i>DR. GETIE ANDUALEM IMIRU</i>	57
14.	<b>THE NATIONAL CHALLENGES AND POLICY OPTIONS OF ETHIOPIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TOWARDS THE ACHIEVEMENT OF EFA GOALS: A FOCUS ON PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL</b> <i>DR. BIRHANU MOGES ALEMU</i>	63
15.	<b>ROLE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR IN ETHIOPIA: A STUDY BASED ON NATIONAL HOUSEHOLD SURVEY</b> <i>CHALACHEW GETAHUN DESTA</i>	73
16.	<b>GROWTH AND PERFORMANCE OF AREA, PRODUCTION AND PRODUCTIVITY OF NATURAL RUBBER IN INDIA</b> <i>M. KANNAN</i>	80
17.	<b>EMPLOYMENT GENERATION AND COMMON PROPERTY RESOURCES IN EAST SIANG DISTRICT OF ARUNACHAL PRADESH, INDIA</b> <i>TOKU CHOKIO</i>	85
18.	<b>LOVE, COMPASSION AND SPIRITUALITY: A TRULY RELEVANT ETHOS IN MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS ORGANISATIONS</b> <i>GEETU SHARMA</i>	90
19.	<b>CLAUSE 49: AN ATTEMPT TO DISCIPLINE CORPORATE</b> <i>SUVIT DAS</i>	92
20.	<b>SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF STUDENTS STUDYING IN GOVERNMENT EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS - WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO BELLARY DISTRICT</b> <i>KOKILA H S &amp; PRASHANTHA RAMACHANDRA HEGDE</i>	98
21.	<b>THE CLIMATE OF COOPERATION IN SWEDEN</b> <i>VINCENT DODOO</i>	101
22.	<b>GREEN FINANCE IS ESSENTIAL FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND SUSTAINABILITY</b> <i>TASNIM UDDIN CHOWDHURY, RAJIB DATTA &amp; HARADHAN KUMAR MOHAJAN</i>	104
23.	<b>INSTITUTIONAL CREDIT AND AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT</b> <i>DR. R. GOVINDASAMY</i>	109
24.	<b>A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PRIMARY HEALTH CENTRES IN INDIA AND HARYANA</b> <i>ANNU</i>	112
25.	<b>IMPACT OF MICRO FINANCE IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF SHGS</b> <i>M. ANNAM</i>	115
26.	<b>FACTORS INFLUENCING THE PROGRESSIVE USE OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES BY ITS PATRONS</b> <i>BIMAL CHANDRA NAIR</i>	120
27.	<b>QUALITY EDUCATION: ISSUES, CONCERNS AND CHALLENGES</b> <i>BHAVNA JOSHI</i>	123
28.	<b>THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND ITS EFFECT ON STUDENT MOBILITY</b> <i>MUNEEB HUSSAIN GATTOO &amp; MUJEEB HUSSAIN GATTOO</i>	126
29.	<b>CONTRIBUTION OF COMMERCIAL BANKS IN HOUSING FINANCE IN HARYANA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY</b> <i>HARDEEP &amp; SATISH KUMAR</i>	132
30.	<b>REGULATION OF INDIAN MUTUAL INDUSTRY</b> <i>MONIKA SAINI</i>	135
	<b>REQUEST FOR FEEDBACK</b>	145

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**THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND ITS EFFECT ON STUDENT MOBILITY**

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**ABSTRACT**

*Internationalisation has become an integral part of higher education. Internationalisation is not only changing the provisions and modes of higher education but the whole concept of higher education itself. Various countries have approached internationalisation of higher education differently and have accordingly framed their policies. The first milestone of higher education's inclusion in GATS occurred in 1994 when the Framework Agreement was signed. Several WTO members made their commitments in the sub-sector higher education. One important issue that is related to internationalisation of higher education is that it is marked with "War for Talent". Various countries are tailor-making their immigration policies that are suitable for international students. Recent years, have witnessed enormous and consequential increase in international student mobility. Nearly 3 million students now study outside their home countries, a number that has risen steeply in a short period. The mobility of Indians is not limited to the U.S. and U.K. as it used to be a few decades back rather several countries such as Canada, Australia, Germany, France and New Zealand have also emerged as their favoured destination. However, it is neither necessary nor possible for higher education institutions to live in ivory towers in the face of internationalisation. But however it is still possible to use discretion that how a country should go about using internationalisation of higher education in the nation building. For a country like India internationalisation of higher education provides a mix of opportunities' and dangers appropriately explained by Buddhist proverb, "the key to gate of heaven is also the key which could open the gate of hell". Although different scholars are using terms like brain circulation, brain exchange and brain train to explain the patterns of student mobility due to internationalisation of higher education but even then the scenario in India is best explained by brain drain only.*

**KEYWORDS**

higher education, internationalisation of education.

**INTRODUCTION**

Thomas Friedman (2007, p.8) said the world was flat – by which he means that “we are connecting all the knowledge centres on the planet together into a single global network”. Higher education has become increasingly international in the past decade as more and more students choose to study abroad, enroll in foreign educational programmes and institutions in their home country, or simply use the Internet to take courses at colleges or universities in other countries. This growth is the result of several different, but not mutually exclusive, driving forces: a desire to promote mutual understanding; the migration of skilled workers in a globalised economy; the desire of the institutions to generate additional revenues; or the need to build a more educated workforce in the home countries, generally as emerging economies.

This paper is an attempt to bring forth different aspects of internationalisation of higher education and its effect on student mobility. Section I begins by definitions of internationalisation of higher education and how does it differ from globalisation. Section II deals with approaches, rationale and goals of internationalisation of higher education. Section III provides a brief contextual background of internationalisation of higher education. Section IV describes that how internationalisation has affected the higher education scenario in different countries of world. Section -V deals with the student mobility due to internationalisation of higher education and increasing competition between different countries to attract foreign students. Section VI explains student mobility in India with respect to internationalisation. Finally section VII contains concluding remarks of the paper.

**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK- INTERNATIONALIZATION VS GLOBALIZATION**

Internationalization is often confused with globalization (Altbach, 2004). Higher education scholars (Knight, 2003; Marginson, 2000; Scott, 1998; Van der Wende, 2002) have been intensively discussing conceptual differences between globalization on the one hand and internationalization on the other and meanwhile have propounded different definitions of internationalization and globalisation(although sometimes contradictory as well). Knight (2003) makes a sharp distinction between globalization and internationalization of higher education. Globalization is defined as the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, and ideas ... across borders. Globalization affects each country in a different way due to a nation's individual history, traditions, culture and priorities. Globalization is positioned as a multifaceted phenomenon and an important environmental factor that has multiple effects on education. Meanwhile, “internationalization at the national, sector and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education”. This definition actually focuses on several key concepts, like the idea of internationalisation being a dynamic process rather than being an isolated activities, integration or infusion that contributes to the sustainability of the international dimension. Finally, this dimension refers to the primary and universal functions of an higher education, namely teaching, research and service to society (Qaing, 2003).

However this definition has been criticised by different scholars for not inculcating other goals. This could suggest that internationalisation is an aim in itself, while in many countries and settings it is seen as a means to achieve a wide goals like quality improvement restructuring and upgrading of higher education systems. For Marginson (2000) the term internationalization describes the growth of relations between nations and between cultures. Globalization is related to the growing role of world systems, not to the growing importance of relations between nations per se. Marginson highlights that globalization neither creates a single political world nor abolishes the nation-state. It changes the conditions under which nation-states operate. “Globalisation does not create a single political world – it does not abolish the nation state – but it changes the conditions in which nation states operate”. It is as much about the cross global movement of people and ideas as about markets and money, and more about networks than about patterns of commodity trade or offshore production.

According to Scott (1998) internationalization reflected a world order dominated by nation- states. “Universities are nation institutions, created to fulfil national purposes”. Globalization, on the contrary, ignores, transcends and is even hostile to nation-states. However, Scott emphasizes that globalization cannot be regarded as a higher form of internationalization. Their relation must be seen as dialectical. In a way the new globalization can be seen as a rival of the old internationalization.

Finally, Van der Wende (1997) sees internationalization as the increasing interconnectedness between national education systems, in which borders and national authorities are not questioned. He also views Internationalisation in higher education as "including any systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education (more) responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy and labour markets". Globalization, on the other hand, relates to the process of increasing convergence and interdependence of economies and to the liberalization of trade and markets. In a sense, internationalization can be seen as a response to globalization.

The synopsis of viewpoints on internationalisation and globalisation shows there are some different, but also some shared views. Scott's and Marginson's definitions regard internationalisation as an external process, while Knight and Van der Wende see internationalisation more as an active policy or activity of a higher educational institution. There seems to be a difference in opinion between Scott and Marginson on the relation between globalisation and the nation state somewhat similar to the general discussion on the influence globalisation might have on governance by nation states. Whereas Marginson argues that the role of the nation states changes, Scott perceives globalisation as hostile to the nation state. The difference can be explained by the fact that Scott approaches globalisation from a more conceptual perspective in which he argues that the role of the nation state is diminished in a truly globalised world. Marginson aims at a more empirical approach, looking at current events and concluding that the role of national governments is changing; that they are adapting to a new situation brought by globalisation. (Luijten-Lub, 2007)

## APPROACHES, RATIONALE AND GOALS OF INTERNATIONALISATION

A review of the literature as well as the practice of international education over last decade reveals that several authors have used a typology of approaches as follows:

- 1) **THE ACTIVITY APPROACH:-** This approach aims to promote activities such as curriculum, student/faculty exchange, technical assistance and international students. However this approach is criticised as being fragmented and uncoordinated approach to internationalisation, whereby the relationship, impact and benefits between and among the activities are not taken into consideration.
- 2) **THE COMPETENCY APPROACH:-** This approach explains the development of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values in students, faculty and staff. The issue central to this approach is how generation and transfer of knowledge help to develop competencies in the personnel of the higher education institution so that they become more internationally knowledgeable and inter culturally skilled. In this approach, the development of international curricula and programmes is not an end in itself but a means towards developing the appropriate competencies in the students, staff and faculty.
- 3) **THE ETHOS APPROACH:-** Such an approach emphasises creating a culture or climate that values and supports international/intercultural perspectives and initiatives. This approach relates more to organisational development theories which focus on the creation of culture or climate within an organisation to support a particular set of principles and goals. This approach acknowledges that the international dimension is fundamental to the definition of a university or any other institution of higher learning and believes that without a strong belief system and supportive culture, the international dimension of an institution will never be realised.
- 4) **THE PROCESS APPROACH:-** It stresses the integration or infusion of an international/intercultural dimension into teaching, research and services through a combination of wide range of activities, policies and procedures. A major concern in this approach is the need to address the sustainability of the international dimension. Therefore the emphasis is placed on program as well as organisational elements such as policies and procedures.

According to several studies, there are four different rationales for internationalisation in higher education undertaking activities and setting out policies economic, political, educational and cultural (see also Blumenthal et al., 1996). However the importance of these rationales differs per country and through time, as is also shown in the analysis by Kälvemark and Van der Wende (1997), using the model developed by Van der Wende to characterise these rationales. They conclude that the economic rationale has become more important over the last years (in Europe). These four rationales (economic, political, educational, and cultural) are also used in the four (not mutually exclusive) policy approaches presented in the OECD publication Internationalisation and Trade in Higher Education (2004). These four approaches are: i) Mutual Understanding, ii) Skilled Migration, iii) Revenue Generation, and iv) Capacity Building.

- i) **Mutual understanding approach:-** The mutual understanding approach to internationalisation aims at a better understanding of other cultures and strengthening ties between countries. This approach is less economically oriented than the other three; although it may still have an economic impact, it is not part of a broader articulated economic policy. The mutual understanding approach encompasses political, cultural, academic and development aid goals. It allows and encourages the international mobility of domestic as well as foreign students and staff through scholarship and academic exchange programmes and supports academic partnerships between educational institutions. Examples of countries using this approach so far are Japan, Mexico, Korea and Spain. The European Union's Socrates-Erasmus mobility programme is another example of this approach.
- ii) **Skilled migration approach:-** With the skilled migration approach the aim of HEIs is to attract skilled students who will contribute to academic life and research capacity and then also to the host country's knowledge economy. It is perceived as an export strategy. This approach is highly likely in countries with an ageing society and/or in countries that see a decline of national interest in certain disciplines. This approach has a clear economic interest for both HEIs and countries, although the direct economical impact may be limited, particularly on a national level. To attract skilled students, main policy instruments are marketing programmes, special programmes for international students, and the facilitation of labour and migration in the receiving country subsequent to study. Examples of countries having adopted this approach are Germany, Canada, France, the United Kingdom (for EU students) and the United States (for post-graduate students).
- iii) **The revenue-generating approach:-** It shares the rationales of the mutual understanding and skilled migration approaches, but offers higher education services on a full-fee basis, without public subsidies. "Like any other market service, the revenue generating approach has as a goal, the enrolment of a large number of foreign students or the control of a large share of the market" (OECD, 2004:26)." Under this strategy, governments tend to grant institutions considerable autonomy and seek to secure the reputation of their higher education sector and protect international students, for example through quality assurance arrangements. HEIs following this approach are looking for other ways of funding and income and seek to attract full-fee paying foreign students. This fee should cover at least the cost of their education in the HEI's country or in the student's country. Examples of this approach are Australia, the United Kingdom (for non-EU students), New Zealand and the United States (for undergraduates).
- iv) **Capacity building approach** The fourth approach, the capacity building approach, is an import strategy. Internationalisation is seen "as a means to meet unmet [domestic] demand as well as to help build capacity for quality higher education" (OECD, 2004: 229). HEIs will try to build a better higher education system with the help of foreign HEIs. Thus, HEIs from other countries are also involved, as their help is needed to build the system and train scholars. Scholarship programmes supporting the outward mobility of domestic civil servants, teachers, academics and students are important policy instruments as well as the encouragement of foreign institutions, programmes and academic staff to come and operate private for-profit ventures, generally under a governmental regulation which ensures their compatibility with the country's nation- and economy-building agendas. Examples of this approach are mostly found in South-East and North Asia and in the Middle East (for example Malaysia; Hong Kong, China; China; Singapore).

## CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK: THE GATS AGREEMENT

Current thinking sees international higher education as a commodity to be freely traded and sees higher education as a private good, not a public responsibility. Commercial forces therefore have a legitimate or even a dominant place in higher education, which comes under the domain of the market. However a question arises that what led to this paradigmatic change about the conception of higher education. Higher education was for a long time and in many respects exclusively associated with the nation state. It was because of interrelated political and economical developments on national and global levels it has been irreversibly taken out of its original boundaries. In fact the inclusion of higher education in GATS can be seen as an important leap of higher education's movement across national boundaries.



GATS is about the rules regulating the conditions under which foreign services and service suppliers are allowed to operate in domestic markets and about any discrimination they have to face once they are present there. Based on public international law literature, GATS can be defined as a "multilateral agreement ... that contains rules and principles governing international trade in services and establishes guidelines for negotiating the future liberalization of such trade". It covers all internationally traded services with two exceptions: first, services provided to the public in the exercise of governmental authority; and second, traffic rights and all services directly related to their exercise.

An important objective of GATS is to open as many service sectors of its members to market access as possible. This objective is described in Part IV of the Framework Agreement labelled Progressive liberalization. Article XIX says among other things that "... members shall enter into successive rounds of negotiations ... with a view to achieving a progressively higher level of liberalization. Such negotiations shall be directed to the reduction or elimination of the adverse effects on trade in services..."

The first milestone of higher education's inclusion in GATS occurred in 1994 when the Framework Agreement was signed<sup>1</sup> Several WTO members made their commitments in the sub-sector higher education, namely Australia, Congo, Costa Rica, Czech Republic, European Community (without Austria, Finland and Sweden as they made their commitments separately), Hungary, Jamaica, Japan, Lesotho, Liechtenstein, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Panama, Poland, Sierra Leone, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Switzerland, Trinidad and Tobago, and Turkey. The higher education sub-sector contained 21 schedules of commitments. The cross-border supply mode (1) consisted of sixteen full commitments and the consumption abroad mode (2) contained eighteen full commitments. In the case of the commercial presence mode (3), the number of full commitments was only seven, while the number of partial commitments (with limitations) was twelve. The movement of natural persons mode (4) stayed mostly unbound. Comparing to other services, education services in general were the least committed sector after energy services by 1998 (WTO, 1998).

In Article I of the GATS, four modes of supply of trade in services were distinguished:

**Mode 1 Cross-Border Supply:** A service that "originates in one Member's territory and is provided in the territory of another Member." This mode is gaining importance especially with the development and spread of the Internet (e.g. e-learning, cyber universities). Ample demand for higher education, triggered by the needs of the labour market, and the emergence of new technologies are rapidly expanding the market share of distance learning through cross-border mode.

**Mode 2 Consumption Abroad:** A service that "is provided in the territory of one Member for a consumer of services from another Member". The rising competition for foreign students has been accompanied by initiatives in the marketing of higher education institutions. For example the so called "educational fairs" are one of the most common mechanisms used by governments and institutions, either directly or through education marketing agency.

**Mode 3 Commercial Presence:** A service that "is provided by a service provider of one Member via a business or professional establishment in the territory of another Member. This includes foreign universities setting up courses or entire institutions in another country. The so called "twinning arrangement" for franchising also comes under this category of trade in educational services through commercial presence. (Khadria, 2006)

**Mode 4 Presence of Natural Persons:** presence of natural persons, is demonstrated by professors, teachers or researchers working temporarily abroad<sup>2\*</sup>.

## INTERNATIONALISATION IN VARIOUS PARTS OF WORLD

European Union authorities have been actively pursuing academic internationalization for more than past two decades, as part of the move to economic and political integration. At first, the EU promoted and lavishly funded programs such as ERASMUS that provided large numbers of EU university students with academic experiences outside their home country. A great landmark in internationalism of Europe took place with what is known as Bologna Declaration or Bologna Accord, signed in 1999. In this declaration, which came into being outside of the governmental structures of the European Union and included more than just the EU-countries, several objectives were laid out aiming to establish a European Higher Education area (EHEA) and promote European higher education worldwide. This included promoting mobility and European cooperation in quality assurance and setting up a two cycle system with easily readable and comparable degrees and a credit system. Every two years progress on the set objectives is discussed by the Ministers of Education of the signatory countries. The Bologna process has taken existing international cooperation in higher education in the European region to a different level. Whereas exchange programmes such as ERASMUS were aimed at the individual student, teacher, or institution; with the Bologna Declaration internationalisation in higher education is taken to the national higher education system level through reforming the structures of degrees to make them more comparable between the different signatory countries. In continental Europe, higher education is looking more towards cooperation within Europe in order to compete on the world market. Thus Bologna Declaration (1999), aims for increasing the competitiveness and attractiveness of European higher education through cooperation amongst the signatory countries so that Europe could face the competition in the 'world market of higher education'.

A similar, but broader aim was laid out at the Lisbon summit in 2000, where the leaders of the EU agreed that Europe should be "the most competitive and dynamic knowledge driven economy by 2010". This again underlines the idea of regional cooperation within the EU to face the global competition. Even though there are some clear differences between the processes, (with the Bologna process starting as a bottom up initiative and aiming at cooperation and social-cultural aspects of higher education and the Lisbon-process being more economically driven) both seem to become more integrated over time (Van der Wende, 2004a: 240; Van der Wende, 2007: 286; cited from Luijten-lub, 2007).

International higher education exists almost in every country. Recently various developing countries have realized the importance to attract, not only foreign institutions but also foreign students to their universities to improve the quality and cultural composition of the student body, gain prestige and earn income. India is one of the best examples.<sup>3</sup> Recently Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) Bill, 2010 was tabled in Parliament in May 2010, after it met with resistance from the Left and the Bharatiya Janata Party during the United Progressive Alliance's first term in office. It was subsequently sent to the Parliamentary Standing Committee, which submitted its report in the monsoon session of Parliament, recommending major changes. There has been no progress after that, as the government does not have the numbers in the Rajya Sabha. The Bill seeks to regulate the entry and operation of foreign educational institutions seeking to impart higher education. Higher education includes technical and medical education and the award of degree and diploma. As per a study conducted by the Association of Indian Universities (AIU), 631 foreign education providers were operating in the country in 2010. Of these, 440 were functioning from their home campuses, 5 opened their own campuses in India, 60 had programmatic collaboration with local institutions, 49 were operating

<sup>1</sup> However it may be pointed that some scholars point that GATS does not require India to do anything at present in education services. It's worth noting that India did not schedule education services either in the Uruguay Round or in its revised commitments under the ongoing Doha Round. Hence, **India has no multilateral obligation under the WTO to open up higher education services to foreign participation. Whatever liberalisation has occurred in this area, such as allowing 100% FDI on automatic route and permitting foreign participation through twinning, collaboration, franchising, and subsidiaries, has been autonomously driven.** Of course, it's likely that in future GATS negotiations, India will come under increasing pressure from certain countries to multilaterally bind the liberalisation undertaken thus far in this sector. **But it's unlikely that India will acquiesce to such demands.**

<sup>2</sup> The past 5 years have witnessed the emergence of new types of providers, forms of delivery, and collaborative partnerships. Along with traditional private and public higher education institutions, "new providers" include commercial IT and media companies, corporate universities, professional associations, and international conglomerates. Providers use face-to-face and virtual modes to deliver education to students in their home countries through twinning, franchising, articulation, validation, and joint or double degree arrangements. Some providers also seek to establish a physical presence through branch campuses, independent institutions, teaching and testing centres, and acquisitions or mergers with local higher education institutions.

<sup>3</sup> In 1995, in wake of White Paper on Government Subsidies prepared by Government of India there occurred a drastic change about the conception of higher education. Before this higher education was regarded as a merit good and it was decided that govt. should come forward for provision of higher education. But however in the wake of this paper higher education was classified as quasi-public good. However in the report 'Central Government Subsidies in India' submitted in 2004 by the ministry of finance, education other than elementary was regarded as "Merit-II good", the extent of subsidisation for which was advocated to be at a lower than "Merit-I good".

under twinning arrangements and 77 had arrangements other than twinning or programmatic collaboration. (The Hindu, 2012) on the other hand there has been a significant increase in total no. of international students studying in India in recent years. The total no. of students has increased from 13,267 in 2004-05 to 21,206 in 2007-08 (IMR 2010-2011, Page 126). As per IIE(2010) report on international educational exchange, the total no. of students from U.S. enrolled in India increased from 470 in 1995-96 to 2,690 in 2008-09 (IMR 2010-2011, Page 127).

Similarly various Middle Eastern countries are witnessing drastic changes as far as internationalisation is concerned. For instance Saudi Arabia is establishing new private universities that involve foreign institutions and investors<sup>4</sup>. The establishment of King Abdullah University of Science and Technology is a kind of landmark in the higher education of Saudi Arabia. 10 billion dollars were spent to get it started which implies that it has a 6<sup>th</sup> largest university endowment in the world. One of KAUSTS stated aims is to be comparable to the world's top 10 Science and Technology University in terms of prestigious journals, average faculty citations and discoveries. It is actively recruiting world class students, faculty, and researchers in order to achieve this aim.

### STUDENT MOBILITY AND "WAR FOR TALENT"

Student mobility has always been conceived as one of the key elements of the international aspects of higher education. Therefore we need to consider student mobility in order to understand the internationalisation of higher education. Recent years, have witnessed enormous and consequential increase in international student mobility. Nearly 3 million students now study outside their home countries, a number that has risen steeply in a short period. From 1999 to 2009 alone, the number of students studying outside their home nations increased by 57 percent, according to UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) and OECD data reported by the Institute for International Education (IIE).

The United States is by far the world's biggest magnet for international students. The United States began to assume that role after World War II, and consolidated it with the flood of foreign students who came in the 1970s and 1980s to study at research universities that had become the best in the world. Today, the U.S. market share of those 2.9 million mobile students worldwide stands at 22 percent, according to a report by the London-based Observatory on Borderless Higher Education. That puts the United States far ahead of its closest competitors, the United Kingdom and Australia, which played host, respectively, to 12 percent and 11 percent of those students. The U.S. edge among graduate students is even higher: about two-thirds of all foreign graduate students worldwide study in the United States.<sup>8</sup> In certain fields, more than half the PhD students at American universities come from overseas: the percentages are 65 percent in computer science, 65 percent in economics, 64 percent in engineering, 56 percent in physics, and 55 percent in mathematics, to cite the best-known examples. (Wildavesky, 2010)

Of the 572,509 foreign nationals who studied in the United States in 2004, more than 50% were of Asian origin; the top five countries of origin were India, China, South Korea, Japan, and Taiwan. China and India are the top source countries among UK's overseas students, making up a combined 69,000 of the 318,390 foreign students who studied in the U.K. in 2005. Similarly, India and China are the largest "sender" countries to Australia, which has become a major force in global higher education. It recruits students through an organization known as IDP Education, which has a network of over seventy-five offices in twenty-nine countries that hold education fairs and the like. France and Germany, while relatively popular, are both considered secondary higher education destinations, and tend to attract students based on their own historical and cultural ties. A large majority of the 265,000 international students enrolled in French universities in 2006 came from Algeria, Morocco, and Tunisia. Germany, which enrolled nearly 190,000 foreign students in 2008, up 82 percent over the previous decade, attracts Chinese students more than any other nationality. After that, Germany is primarily a destination for Europeans from nations such as Bulgaria, Poland, and Russia. It has also attracted substantial numbers of Turkish students (wildavesky, 2010).

Another important issue that is related to internationalisation of higher education is that it is marked with "War for Talent"<sup>5</sup>. With universities craving for market share<sup>6</sup>, recruiting, fostering overseas partnership, global higher educational rankings<sup>7</sup> every nation is using different means to attract students. Various countries are tailor-making their immigration policies that are suitable for international students. Recently US also started acceptance of three year bachelor degree programme for entry to its graduate schools. Earlier it only accepted students in its graduate schools only after they completed 16 years of formal education. Students that had three years bachelors were required to study to study one year of post graduation before they could take any entrance test to American universities. The change in rule was targeted towards attracting the students from countries that followed three years bachelor programme like India. Beyond the United States, other Western nations are also energetic recruiters of foreign talent. Australia, for instance, which is particularly reliant on fees from international students, recruits heavily from China, Singapore, Malaysia, and the Middle East. As a result of those efforts, Australia—a country with a population only a bit larger than that of metropolitan New York—has attracted nearly one-third as many overseas students as the United States in the past couple of decades. Overall, 20 percent of students in Australian universities are from overseas—making higher education the nation's third largest export after coal and iron ore. In Scotland, too, universities are eager to enroll students from beyond their national borders. Nearly half of graduate students—and 20 percent of all students—now come from overseas. Recruiting foreign students is increasingly a priority for non-English speaking countries, too. Many that have long been mostly "sending" countries now want to attract foreigners themselves. Singapore is hoping to attract 150,000 foreign students by 2015; Malaysia is seeking 100,000 students (up from 45,000 in 2005); and Jordan wants to attract 100,000 international students by 2020. China, which already has 196,000 foreign students, mostly from Asian nations such as Korea and Japan, is now seeking to enroll 300,000 overseas students by 2020. Japan is especially ambitious; it aims to boost its current overseas enrollment of 120,000 to 1 million by 2025. Worried about this decline in enrollment from some nations, then prime minister Tony Blair initiated a program in 1999 that called for attracting an additional 271,000 foreign students to the United Kingdom—a quarter of all foreign students studying in primarily English-speaking countries. The primary motivation for the initiative, which Blair later extended, was not bringing in tuition revenues but maintaining academic and economic competitiveness.

An important point that deserves our special attention is that student mobility due to internationalisation of higher education does not always follow the traditional developing developed world trajectory. In an October 2008 report, for example, the British Council warned that the rapid expansion of higher education in countries such as India and China means that universities in the United Kingdom will have a harder time attracting students from abroad. (The Council suggested that British universities need to concentrate not only on student recruitment but on partnerships and research collaboration as well.) . Ben Wildavesky maintains that many scholars believe that terms "brain circulation"<sup>8</sup>, "brain exchange" or "brain train"<sup>9</sup> provide a more nuanced description of today's patterns of academic mobility and migration of skilled workers than the oft-used phrases "brain gain" and "brain drain".

<sup>4</sup> For further details on internationalisation of higher educational institutions in other parts of world refer to altbach, 2007.

<sup>5</sup> many countries face a demographic deficit. Their birth rate is falling, which combined with an ageing population, is leading to a decline in the overall pool of available skilled labour. While the world population is likely to increase by 2.5 billion over the years to 2050, the population of the more developed regions is expected to remain largely unchanged, and would have declined, if not for net migration from developing to developed countries. In 2005, young people were 13.7 % of the population in developed countries, but their share is expected to fall to 10.5 % by 2050 (Bremner et al., 2009, cited from). These changes are driving a "war for talent" – not just amongst businesses, but among HEIs for smart students and researchers, and nations eager to drive their knowledge-intensive sectors

<sup>6</sup> During the 1999–2005 period, for example, overseas enrollments in the United States grew by 17 percent. Foreign enrollment in British universities grew by 29 percent during the same interval, in Australia by 42 percent, in Germany by 46 percent, and in France by 81 percent.

<sup>7</sup> Higher education rankings have become an international phenomenon. In today's world, the talent catching and knowledge-producing capacity of higher education has become a vital sign of a country's capacity to participate in world science and the global economy. In the process, rankings are transforming universities and reshaping higher education. Despite the fact that there are over 16,000 higher education institutions (HEIs) worldwide, there is a continuing fascination with the standing and trajectory of the top 100, less than 1 % of the world's institutions, etc. are very prominent nowadays.

<sup>8</sup> used for first time by XIAONAN CAO in 1996

<sup>9</sup> 1<sup>st</sup> coined by Jane Knight

**INTERNATIONAL STUDENT MOBILITY FROM INDIA**

Today a large number from Indian students cross the national borders for foreign education than ever before and hence forms another stream of migration other than "employment gate" that has been taking place through what is known as "academic gate". The mobility of Indians is not limited to the U.S. and U.K. as it used to be a few decades back rather several countries such as Canada, Australia, Germany, France and New Zealand have also emerged as their favoured destination. There can be various reasons that can be attributed to massive increase in the number of Indian students studying abroad. Firstly Indian universities do not have the capacity to absorb all the applicants, especially in the professional courses. Approximately more than 90% of students who aspire for the Indian Institute of Technology and the Indian Institute of Management admissions do not succeed due to capacity constraints, hence the top 40% among them go abroad for higher education (The Financial Express, 2008). Secondly, a foreign degree is considered superior than a degree provided by most Indian institutions, and is valued high in job market. Thirdly those who want to go abroad and settle there, see studying abroad as a first step towards achieving permanent residence. Thus a student's educational voyage to a foreign country is not only an educational one but way beyond that.

The US had been the top most destination country for Indian students abroad. There were 690,923 international students enrolled in the US in 2009-2010, more than one third (33.7%) of these foreign students enrolled in the US are from India and china. India has remained the top most origin country of international students in the US for several years in the last decade. However it was overtaken by china in 2009-2010. (IMR 2010-2011). The number of Indian students studying in the United States has dropped continuously for the second consecutive year while the count of international students in the country has now reached a record high with the maximum enrollments from China. The number of Indian students in the US in 2011-12 dropped 3.5 per cent compared to the previous year, marking two consecutive years of decline. In the year 2011-12, the Chinese student enrollments have increased by 23 per cent in total and by 31 per cent at the undergraduate level, according to the 2012 Open Doors Report on International Educational Exchange. India had been the leading place of origin for international students in the US from 2001-02 through 2008-09. Overall, China sends the maximum number of 1,94,029 students in the year 2011-12 as against 1,57,558 in the previous year. While China registered an increase in enrollment in American universities, it dropped for those coming from India by 3.5 per cent to 1,00,270 students. In 2011-12 only 13 per cent of the Indian students were enrolled for undergraduate studies, whereas a majority of them (58.9 per cent) are graduate students and 26.7 per cent on OPT (optional practical training). According to Open Doors, nearly three-fifths of the total Indian students are enrolled in science, engineering or mathematics courses (times of india, 2012).

The United Kingdom is the second most preferred destination of the Indian students. Indian students rank second, next to Chinese among the number of international students going to UK. According to data from the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA), the number of Indian students in UK rose from 19,205 in 2005-2006 to 23,835 in 2006-2007. In 2010-2011 just under 40,000 students were studying at UK higher education institutes. However there was a sharp decline in this number (almost a quarter) in 2011-2012, the total enrolment reaching 30,000 due recent changes to student visa rules. However the overall number of non-EU students at British universities rose by around 5000 to 302,680, driven by sharp increase in students from countries including china, Singapore and Indonesia (The Telegraph, 2013). Similarly India has been the second top donor country for Australia's international education industry. Indian students are the second largest group of international students studying at a tertiary level in Australia. From 2004 to 2009 the number of Indians studying in Australia rose from 30,000 to 97,000 with 45,000 of these living in Melbourne, 32,000 in Adelaide and the remainder shared between Sydney, Brisbane and Perth (gulf news). According to Australian bureau of statistics, the International student enrolments and commencements from India decreased between 2009 and 2010, down 17% and 38% respectively. These declines were apparent across all sectors, though Indian nationals were still the second highest contributor to international student enrolments (16%) and commencements (13%) in 2010.

**CONCLUDING REMARKS**

It can be concluded that internationalisation has become an integral part of higher education. Internationalisation is not only changing the provisions and modes of higher education but the whole concept of higher education itself. Various countries have approached internationalisation of higher education differently and have accordingly framed their policies. Internationalisation of higher education is not only marked by tremendous and consequential mobility of international students but also war for talent, where in different countries are competing with each other to get higher market share (by tailor-making their policies). So far, U.S and UK have emerged as most powerful magnets to attract international students and at the same time India and China have emerged as biggest donor countries.<sup>10</sup>

It follows from above discussion that it is neither necessary nor possible for higher education institutions to live in ivory towers in the face of internationalisation. But however it is still possible to use discretion that how a country should go about using internationalisation of higher education in the nation building. For a country like India internationalisation of higher education provides a mix of opportunities' and dangers appropriately explained by Buddhist proverb, "the key to gate of heaven is also the key which could open the gate of hell". Although different scholars are using terms like brain circulation, brain exchange and brain train to explain the patterns of student mobility due to internationalisation of higher education but even then the scenario in India is best explained by brain drain only<sup>11</sup>. Firstly there is need for diversified higher education system, with increased capacity, that includes some world class universities so as to curb the student mobility from India. Although given the tremendous increase in secondary education (that may be further increased in future due to RTE) the student mobility seems inevitable. Therefore secondly what is required in India today is to have definite and holistic state policy on international migration – comprehensively addressing the ever changing problem of brain drain by fusion of policies on education and the labour market-national as well as international. Further there is need for various provisions to facilitate the return migration. Although Indian government has already taken various steps to facilitate return migration, however, a lot more needs to be done if India really wishes to become a hub for return migrants. Thirdly there is also a need to attract more foreign students to impart an added international character to campuses while also serving as a source of tuition revenues. China is already an example in this regard it attracts more than 200,000 foreign students while as India attracts only 20,000 foreign students. Fourthly and finally india can also adopt new model of cooperation (as bologna accord of EU) so as to attract more foreign students from neighbouring countries of south leading to what has been termed as 'regional globalism' where we will see more and more student mobility stay regional rather than involving large global distances.

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<sup>10</sup> India doesn't serve nearly as many foreign students as China—about 20,000, compared to China's more than 200,000.

<sup>11</sup> (Over the past several decades, about 80% of graduates from the two countries have not returned home (Agarwal 2009).

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