

# Occasional Papers

## **Student Mobility at Tertiary Level in India** Status, Prospects and Challenges

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**National University of Educational Planning and Administration**

17-B, Sri Aurobindo Marg, New Delhi-110016, INDIA

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# Student Mobility at Tertiary Level in India

## Status, Prospects and Challenges

Neeru Snehi\*

### *Abstract*

*Presence of international students in higher education institutions and universities of different countries around the world is a very common sight. The student mobility, especially at the tertiary/post-secondary level, is being recognized and promoted by the governments and institutions. The UNESCO reported that 2.8 million students were studying abroad (outside the country of their origin) in 2007 and the figure is projected to rise to 7.2 million by 2025. In India, too, the scenario of students going abroad and coming in is continuously changing. The impact of market forces and revolution in information and communication technology has altered the dynamics of student mobility. A conceptual overview is presented to capture the various dimensions of student mobility. This article also highlights the trends in Indian students moving abroad for higher education and the international students joining Indian higher education institutions. Analysis of the empirical as well as secondary data has revealed the reasons for their moving, choice of destination country/institution, and fields of interest of mobile students. Based on the analysis of experiences of foreign students in Indian universities, the paper brings forth the prospects of developing India as hub for attracting foreign students and promoting its higher education system across the globe. One of the biggest challenges India faces is absence of national and institutional policies for promoting Indian higher education abroad. The paper, thus, attempts to emphasize the impetus on internationalization of higher education in India to provide competitive and quality education experience in higher education institutions.*

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## **Introduction**

Education across the globe has become more accessible nowadays and the students have become more mobile. Presence of foreign students in higher education institutions and universities of different countries around the world is a very common sight. The student mobility is being recognized and is attracting attention of the governments and institutions. The UNESCO reported that 2.8 million students were studying abroad (outside their country of origin) in 2007 and the figure is projected to rise to 7.2 million by 2025. In fact it is reported that in 2010, more than 4.1 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship, reflecting an increase of 99% during the period 2000-2010, for an average annual growth rate of 7.1% (OECD, 2012).

It is felt that the increase in mobility across the globe is due to the impact of market forces and revolution in information and communication technology. Today, Australia, France, United States, U.K. and Germany have emerged as favoured student destinations for higher education. On the other hand, China, India and Korea are the major sending countries. Despite the fact that India has hosted foreign students in its universities since the ancient periods, their number has always remained less and fewer. The concerns about the low level of inward international student mobility in India as compared to an ever-increasing outward student mobility has been highlighted time and again. No doubt, complete data of the number of foreign students pursuing their studies in India and a systematic information about the overall number of Indian students going abroad is not available to depict the student mobility scenario, yet undoubtedly, the growing number of foreign students in Indian universities and colleges does indicate the internationalization of universities vis-a-vis higher education in the country. Recognizing the changing trends, Government of India is also now seems to be emphasizing on the internationalization of higher education, as would be evident from the attention it has received in the Eleventh Five Year Plan and the Approach paper to the Twelfth Five Year Plan.

The increase in student mobility, i.e, number of internationally mobile students is driven by a number of factors. They range from unprecedented increase in demand for

higher education worldwide, the perceived value of attending reputed higher education institutions, inbuilt and organized student mobility programmes and even promotion/support therefore need specific programmes. Many countries have formulated elaborate policies to promote student mobility. The forerunners are mostly developed countries which already have exhaustive policies and mechanisms in place not only for providing opportunities to their students through study abroad programmes but also have initiated special programmes to attract more and more international students. For instance, European Union has instituted policies to harmonize academic structures (Bologna initiatives) within the Union countries in order to increase student mobility. At the same time, in many developed countries, significant policy shifts have been observed during the past few decades from the traditional "aid" to a "trade" perspective in relation to foreign students and has led to major marketing efforts. Also, to attract the students from different countries, most of the developed countries have established their offices in other countries for promoting their educational services/institutions.

Internationalization of higher education is seen to be assuming a higher priority in government's educational policies and programmes in most of the countries. Initiatives to promote India as an educational hub for the foreign students are also being considered important.

However, in the context of shrinking resources and increasing demand for higher education in India itself, the proposition to attract foreign students may be contestable. Notwithstanding the contestations, attracting foreign students into Indian universities is considered beneficial on a number of counts. Firstly, it is suggested that adding diversity to a university campus will promote a diverse learning environment and promote teachers to be responsive to the situation. This will lead to more accountability and promote quality in universities. Secondly, role of foreign students assume importance as ambassadors of the Indian culture, its society and economy. This may help enormously to link the Indian economy with that of the other countries. Thirdly, it will also add to the revenue generating capacity of the Indian universities.



Therefore, it becomes imperative for Indian policymakers and planners to work out an active strategy to attract foreign students in the campus of Indian universities. To work out a comprehensive strategy in this area it is important to understand the trends in student mobility/flows both at national and international levels. The first section, thus, presents briefly the different dimensions of student mobility. In the second section, trends in international student mobility are discussed. Section three presents the national picture in student mobility, i.e., both outward and inward flow of students in the Indian higher education system. The fourth section of this paper presents the policy initiatives and developments in the area of foreign students' inflow into the Indian universities and colleges. Section five highlights the prospects for internationalizing, based on foreign students' experiences in higher education institutions in India and section six brings forth the challenges faced by the Indian higher education institutions in internationalizing higher education/for promotion of Indian higher education abroad. Finally, the paper concludes with some suggestions for internationalization of the Indian higher education system and its promotion abroad.

### **Section I: Student Mobility—A Conceptual Overview**

Student aspirations in the recent times are seemingly growing global. Increasing opportunities in the context of choice of education programme and places in higher education institutions has resulted in rise in student mobility worldwide. The phenomenon is driven further not only by the market forces but also due to the emerging policies relating to recruitment of foreign students in many countries across the globe. Student exchange programmes, collaborations among academic institutions and cross-border education projects are found to be springing up. The implications of these phenomena are enormous and significant. It is argued that international students can bring much-needed revenues to boost institutional coffers and stimulate university classrooms and, at the same time may have high expectations and demands. The varied dimensions of student mobility within and outside the country are seen to be attracting widespread attention due to their explicit as well as tacit influence. Consequently, student mobility has now increasingly become an integral part of the higher education environment worldwide. Not only students themselves but governments/universities are

also seen to be taking new initiatives to enhance student mobility by providing added opportunities.

### ***1.0 Modern Context***

Initiatives for developing study abroad programmes started as early as in 1960s by the American universities. Subsequent period between 1970s and 1980s witnessed the emergence of policy statements and practices in international education. Policy guidelines developed by International Committee for the Study of Educational Exchange (ICSEE), National Association for Foreign Study Affairs (NAFSA), United Kingdom Council for Overseas Student Affairs (UKCOSA), The Australian Vice Chancellor's Committee (AVCC) & Australian Committee for Directors and Principals in Advanced Education (ACDPAE) focused on the need for integration and coordination of policies and programmes among and within universities; establishment of mechanisms for the implementation of academic mobility; organization of sound academic programmes taking into consideration the differing needs of foreign students such as the curriculum and language proficiency. Another dimension which was highlighted relates to adequate funding for maintaining appropriate academic standards as well as to establish reciprocal relationships in educational exchange. Need for research on academic mobility has also been strongly emphasized. It was perceived that this would help in studying the flows of educational exchange, the causes of success and failure on part of exchanges, the impact of the exchange experience on individuals and institutions and analyzing the characteristics of agreements made by different universities for educational exchange (Allaway, 1993). Since 1990s, the number of people choosing to study abroad increased considerably. The number of foreign students in the OECD area rose by 90 per cent between 1998 and 2007 to reach 2.5 million (OECD, 2009). Also, IIE reports that academic mobility is on the increase, too, for instance, in US it rose by 77 per cent between 1994 and 2007 to reach 106,000 international academics in 2007 (IIE, 2008) Other countries such as Japan, Korea and Europe also witnessed increased mobility in the last decade (Vincent-Lancrin, 2009; Marginson and van der Wende, 2009b). Thus, student mobility has continued to attract interest all around the world.

### ***1.1 Why Students Move?***

*Push and Pull factors:* The vast pool of research literature reveals that the actual process of student mobility is influenced by variety of push-pull factors in global and specific national contexts. Major proponents of push-pull model described that push factors are the unfavourable conditions in home countries and/or national differences which increase the likelihood of overseas study while the pull factors are the scholarships and other educational opportunities which attract the students (Cummings, 1984; Altbach, 2004; Davis, 1995; Li and Bray, 2007; Mazzarol and Soutar, 2002). In fact, student mobility is a dynamic process and is based on the interplay between supply of student places and demand for those places. The standard push factors may include inadequate access to quality higher education institutions in the parent country, lack of diversity in educational programmes, lack of advanced research facilities, poor quality of instruction, political instability, limited opportunities for further education etc., while pull factors may constitute choice of education programme, accessible admission policies, advanced research facilities, scholarships and incentives, greater employment opportunities etc. However, the impact of push and pull factors supplement each other, i.e., push factors create a generalized interest in overseas education while pull factors provide specific directions to choice of destination and selection of education institutions and programmes (Davis, 1995 cited in Li and Bray, 2007).

Analysis of new push and pull factors in global and specific national contexts reveals that pull factors have stronger influence on the perceptions of the international students whereas push factors are declining due to developments in higher education systems of the countries across the world (Mazzarol and Soutar, 2002). Li and Bray note that standard push-pull model takes into consideration only external factors while mobility depends on personal characteristics such as socio-economic status, academic ability, gender, age, motivation, aspirations etc, of the students, too. Zheng (2003) also observed that that the existing push-pull model has mainly focussed on the educational, economic and political dimensions of sending and host countries and has underplayed social and cultural factors. According to him, both sending and host countries have negative push forces (which drive students outside) and positive forces (which attract and retain) which impact the decision of students. The research reveals that nowadays

positive push factors such as better prospects, social status, exposure to social and cultural environment etc. exercise greater influence than negative push factors at home (Chen, 2007). Thus, the research literature reveals that although student mobility is a result of interplay between push-pull forces, yet influence of pull factors is increasing in the present times.

*Governments' perspective:* The recent trends in student mobility reveal that the role of governments both sending and receiving students has changed from passive to active. Many countries are now in undertaking a co-coordinated national approach to attract and to increase their numbers of international students, from branded marketing campaigns and exhibitions to scholarships, quality assurance and accessibility. While some countries are acting as facilitators by developing policy instruments for promoting student mobility through organized initiatives such as European Union's ERASMUS-MUNDUS programme. In addition, many countries are attempting to attract more foreign students by relaxing visa and immigration policies (Australia), work permits after completion of programmes for a period (UK, Australia, Canada, New Zealand), residency and employment visas (Germany) and also by ensuring that their foreign students receive the education and overall student experience they were promised during the recruitment process.

In recent years, universities in economically advanced countries are showing an increasing interest to attract foreign students for revenue generation. This trend has contributed to a rapidly evolving market in international education which, in turn, creates new opportunities, challenges and an increasingly competitive environment for all. In addition to the economic benefits of recruiting international students, governments have also recognized the importance of international students for economic, trade, cultural and political reasons. Consequently, new destinations/countries are emerging for international student population's access. While describing the recent trends in international student mobility, Verbik and Lasanowski have classified the countries as: The Major Players (the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia); The Middle Powers (Germany and France); The Evolving Destinations (Japan, Canada and New Zealand); and The Emerging Contenders (Malaysia, Singapore and China). They further observed that

‘chronic skills shortages are furthermore highlighting the importance of attracting international students, in terms of potential short- and long-term gains for institutions and countries’. For instance, Western economies are actively seeking to retain international students after graduation, with their industrial sector increasingly interested in recruiting overseas talent to compensate for local skilled workforce shortages and to remain competitive in an era of globalization; Australia and Canada are also recruiting to supplement their rapidly decreasing and ageing populations. For these reasons, concerns over enrolment trends have warranted the attention of national governments in countries such as the US and the UK, because not only do these countries want overseas students, they actually need them for their economic development. In the light of developments in the international student market over the past years, therefore, there is a clear sense of concern amongst the traditional destination countries, even those which have only experienced marginal enrolment declines (Verbik and Lasanowski, 2007).

*Institutions’ perspective:* In the contemporary scenario, international student mobility has emerged as a main form of cross-border education. This has resulted in greater desire of higher education institutions to raise their profile and visibility on the national and international stage and/or to accrue additional income. Traditionally, universities welcomed mobile students either through educational exchange programmes or even individual but did not make organized efforts to recruit them. But nowadays, to attract foreign students targeted initiatives are being undertaken in the form of quality education, introduction of educational programmes, advanced research facilities, competitive environment, scholarships, free-ships, loans, improving the quality of student experience etc.

*Students’ perspective:* International mobility of students impacts on the overall outlook, subsequent careers and lifestyles of the students themselves. According to Li and Bray individual student’s motivation to study abroad can be categorized as ‘academic, economic, social and cultural, and political. Academic motives included pursuit of qualifications and professional development; economic motives included access to scholarships, estimated returns from study, and prospects for employment; social and cultural factors included a desire to obtain experience and understanding of other

societies; and political motives embraced such factors as commitment to society and enhancement of political status and power' (Li and Bray, 2007). Cost associated with an overseas education including tuition fees and accommodation is becoming a significant motivational factor for application to one country over another. Given the rising fees of study abroad, the comparative cost of higher education in particular is likely to give certain countries a competitive edge in the coming years, Malaysia and Singapore amongst them (Verbik and Lasanowaski, 2007). However, mobile students believe that a diversified education provides them with increased confidence, maturity, linguistic competence and academic ability (in terms of internationally recognized qualifications) and exposure to other cultural surroundings (King, 2004; Malysheva, 2005; Altbach, 2004) is also perceived as being important. In addition, there are also a range of other reasons why a particular international student might choose a one destination country over another for study; these include quality and reputation of the country's education provision, its accessibility, affordability and the employability of the qualification obtained. The emergence of worldwide university rankings and the media coverage which surrounds them also signal the appearance of a new global higher education area which is transforming the practices of higher education institutions, political decision-makers and students (Salmi, 2009; Marginson and van der Wende, 2009a). Thus, research literature in this field reveals that mobile students are looking for benefits from their education which will enhance their personal and professional development.

### ***1.2 Impact of Internationalization of Higher Education on Student Mobility***

Higher education systems are expanding rapidly due to the impact of ongoing process of globalization. The impact of globalization in terms of increased networks and linkages has resulted in international exchanges, collaborations among academics, students, educational programmes and institutions. As a result, internationalization of higher education has emerged as a phenomenon to utilize these opportunities by developing proactive policies for generation and dissemination of knowledge in institutions of higher learning. Increasing student mobility both inbound and outbound has emerged as the most visible aspect of internationalization. Initiatives to attract foreign/international students in the present times are being observed as part of a larger

process of internationalization as well as the most important factor in the internationalization of higher education.

Internationalization can be perceived in various ways and has a number of meanings. It refers to the specific policies and initiatives of countries and individual academic institutions or systems to deal with global trends. The literature is replete with the discussions on the concepts of globalization and internationalization and their overlapping territories as well as contrast in basic ideologies. Globalization is generally associated with economic processes whereas internationalization with engagement and knowledge sharing. However, the last two decades have witnessed much discourse and debate about defining internationalization. The number of related terms emerged, for instance, in the 1990s international education was much used, whereas in 21<sup>st</sup> century the set of terms include transnational education, border-less education, offshore education and cross-border education as well as transnationalization, multinationalization and regionalization. Interestingly all these descriptors take into account the concept of border rather than comparative, multicultural, intercultural concepts (Knight, 2007).

The internationalization of higher education provision, especially among universities in developed industrial countries, has been consistently identified as a major trend since the late 1980s (Bennell and Pearce, 2003). This process of internationalization is manifesting itself in a variety of ways. Not only are exchanges of faculty and students becoming increasingly common but also the universities are striving to respond to the needs of the rapidly globalizing economy by internationalizing their curricula. For instance, the European Union's (EU's) Erasmus and Socrates programmes are currently the largest, publicly funded initiatives in the world to promote international student mobility and faculty exchange. The process of enrolling foreign students generates the much needed income as well as foreign exchange for the universities and, as such, it comprises the bulk of education exports in most of the countries.

The two related concepts which have gained foothold during the last decade are 'internationalization at home' and 'internationalization abroad'. Knight (2007) is of the view that "internationalization 'at home' attempts to forge a closer link between the

concepts of international and intercultural in the education domain and represents an important stage in the development of the international/intercultural dimension of education” (p.212). Internationalization at home is based on the opinion that internationalization begins at our own doorsteps and not abroad. Therefore, internationalization ‘at home’ calls for universities to demonstrate international ability, foreign language knowledge, intercultural competency and extroversion toward the world. This happens by offering international courses, i.e., curriculum providing for international knowledge, strong comparative approaches, cultivation of intercultural cooperative skills, promoting foreign languages, offering double degrees, and by organization of summer schools and pre-departure workshops in universities/institutions. Even extra-curricular events and activities contribute to the international approach of any educational programme/course.

The impact of increasing internationalization is reflected in the way it is challenging established traditions and practices and the opportunities created for comparison between education systems. Its influence has resulted in integration of local, national and global knowledge and skill competencies. For instance, education programmes in management, engineering & technology and information technologies from the reputed universities all over the world are internationally recognized and negotiable qualifications are being accepted for recruitment and promotion purposes. Consequently, internationalization of higher education is being encouraged both at state and institutional levels through mobility of institutions and programmes, students, teachers and researchers across national borders. Therefore, internationalization of a higher education institution implies an institution which recognizes its place in the global environment and meets the needs of the international students both in services and through the curricula to ensure that the course is relevant when they return to their home country.

Internationalization of higher education is also resulting in mobilization of student/academic community by providing greater access to opportunities for the production and distribution of knowledge. Its role in national development is recognized as the developed countries are attracting the young talent in masses and are forging ahead



in knowledge as well as economic development. Further, inclusion of education services as a tradable service sector under the General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS) is transforming it to a profit making venture subject to international treaties and negotiations. While international exchanges based on culture in the field of education have earlier been promoted, political and economic group countries such as Australia, UK and the USA are increasingly viewing them as trade. This is further giving fillip to internationalization of higher education institutions and has raised concerns for the commercialization of higher education, too.

Therefore, it is evident that the process of internationalization of higher education institutions has been initiated across the world. This has resulted in increase in the students and faculty exchanges through organized exchange programmes. In addition, universities are also striving to respond to the changing demands of the evolving liberal and globalized society by internationalizing their curriculum. Moreover, admission of foreign students in universities contributes to their income/foreign exchange. Presently, foreign students comprise the bulk of education experts in most of the developed countries. In addition, new opportunities for cross-border delivery such as e-learning, joint or branch campuses, franchising arrangements between foreign and local providers and international consortia have expanded. Thus, student mobility, which is one of the dimensions of internationalization process, is dominating the higher education sector across the globe.

### ***1.3 Legislation and policies on student mobility***

The market for international students has become increasingly competitive. The active interest shown by institutions of higher education, national governments, international bodies and private sectors in attracting international students is reflected through their policies and legislations. Developed countries such as USA, UK, Australia, France, Japan and New Zealand have developed mechanisms to attract foreign students to these countries. In fact, Australia and New Zealand have invested in good provision and good quality programmes and have the most internationalized campuses, with foreign students comprising more than 17% of all tertiary enrolments and Australia has actually made a profit out of higher education, while most countries are struggling to generate

resources for tertiary education (Malley, 2007). Even developing countries such as China and India, which were thought of as ‘sending countries’, are improving their indigenous higher education capacity to encourage domestic students to stay home as well as attract foreign students. Similarly, European Union’s Erasmus-Socrates programme is currently the largest publicly funded initiative in the world to promote international student mobility and faculty exchange within EU countries and other countries around the world.

#### ***1.4 Policies for internationalization of higher education***

Policy developments in a number of countries are moving in the direction of increasing internationalization. As internationalization is generally understood as collaboration and mobility of students and staff through exchange programmes, academic partnerships, joint programmes and degrees etc. a wide range of specific policies and initiatives of countries and individual academic institutions or systems to deal with global trends are emerging. Some countries such as USA, UK, Australia and New Zealand have set up international agencies to promote their higher education system abroad and authorized their universities to provide educational services. France has established a national agency, now known as Campus France, which promotes French higher education and provides a comprehensive website to help prospective students search for programs and institutions, apply online, and receive information on visas, insurance, residency, and employment (Obst, 2007, p.7; American Council on Education, 2006, p.13). The German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) promotes German higher education abroad while globally the British Council promotes the UK’s higher education system through its offices. Germany has attracted international students subsidizing their education; however, many countries which were providing subsidized higher education to international students also (like domestic students) have in recent times started charging fees for their educational programmes or are in the process of framing rules for charging fees.

Multinational policies for collaboration in higher education areas are emerging to make certain geographic regions more attractive destination for foreign students. The most visible example of such an initiative is the ‘The Bologna Process’. The Bologna Process seeks to make the EU ‘the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based

economy in the world by 2010' and is claimed to have 'made Europe, overnight, a major competitor in the international student market' (NAFSA, June 2006, p.4). Efforts are also underway among Asia-Pacific countries to create a regional higher education space like that in Europe (American Council on Education, 2006, p.12). New competitors, such as Singapore and the Middle East, have also entered the market in the process of creating regional education hubs (American Council on Education, 2006, p.14). Canada has also launched their nation's brand, in 2008, 'Imagine Education in Canada' – in a bid to attract more foreign students to study and possibly stay in Canada (Canadian Press, 2008).

### ***1.5 Policies for recruitment and admission of foreign students***

Interestingly it is observed that each country has differing policies towards student mobility and admissions/recruitments. In European Union, legal obligations call for no discrimination against citizens of other EU countries, the emphasis observed was increasingly directed towards mobility outside the EU while emphasis, especially in the three countries i.e., Germany, France and UK is on inward mobility. The universities in different countries have developed different models for controlling the number of students entering the higher education institutions. In some countries for instance Germany, France, Sweden, UK and Greece, there is setting of quotas in certain disciplines. At post-graduate level, decisions related to admissions are invariably taken at the level of the university or department. In case of the US, the UK and Australia, who receive the highest number of foreign students, they strategically target students in potentially high-yield countries. Realizing the contribution that foreign students make to host nation economies, both culturally and financially, these three countries are moving further initiatives to facilitate the arrival and integration of overseas students, including substantial amendments to immigration requirements and procedures.

### ***1.6 Visa Schemes and Immigration Procedures***

Review of research reveals that visa and immigration policies are also major determinant for a student's choice of destination to study abroad. Graduate visa schemes for international student are used as an integral part of the recruitment policies as they provide opportunities to remain in the country and gain employability during and after completion of the course. According to Verbik and Lasanowaski, (2007), in USA, major

changes were observed in visa regulations after the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001. The US immediately toughened its visa and immigration requirements. Under the Enhanced Border Security and Visas Entry Reform Act (2002), the US has not only introduced a new overseas student tax to fund an advanced computer tracking system for visa, they have also, on the other hand recently undertaken several measures to make immigration procedures easier and more transparent, including legislative revisions to its visa-awarding policy and an increase in the number of consular officers in high-volume posts (USA Report).

During the last few years, Australia has also increased efforts to attract students from specific countries in Asia by organizing national recruitment events and revising immigration legislation for overseas students. They have strategically aligned their immigration policies with other policies to attract international students. The changes have reportedly been made in an attempt to strengthen links between study, work experience and employment and to ensure that the skilled migrants have the skills for which the Australian employers are looking up. The Government's stated rationale for the alteration includes a desire for Australia to benefit from the skills of foreign graduates, and the need to respond to the pressure of competitors "busily copying" the country's programme. In 1998, Australia amended its points-based immigration system, with the additional points for graduates of Australian universities; by the start of 2002, such international students represented nearly 50 per cent of all skilled applicants. At the same time, Australia experienced a 30 per cent rise in demand for its tertiary courses (Hawthorne, 2005, p.688). It is also interesting to note that since 2003, Australia has been awarding an extra five points to skilled applicants who have studied and resided in one or more areas in regional Australia or low population growth metropolitan areas for at least two years (Ziguras & Law, 2006, p.64).

On the other hand, some of traditionally sending countries such as China, Malaysia and Singapore in particular, have developed strategies to transform their countries into 'world-class' higher education destinations over the next decade. A review of policy incentives by some countries for promoting and attracting foreign students is summarized in the Table 1.1 below.

**Table 1.1**  
**Policy Incentives in Some Countries**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Pathways to permanent and temporary residency</b>
<b>USA</b>	Pathway to temporary residency: Annual Quota within the H1-B visa scheme for applicants who graduated from a national higher education institution at master's or PhD level, later on possibility to apply for permanent residency
<b>Australia</b>	Pathway to permanent residency (General Skilled Migration Scheme-Skilled Independent Overseas Student Category): Overseas Students are granted extra points for atleast 2 years of education in Australia
<b>New Zealand</b>	Pathway to permanent residency (Skilled Immigration Scheme): International students are granted extra points, no job offer is needed-Temporary work permits; graduate Search work permit for six months
<b>Canada</b>	Pathway to permanent residency (Skilled Immigration Scheme): International students are granted extra points in case they have finished a 2-year programme at a Canadian institution at post-secondary level  Temporary work permits: (Post-graduation Work Permit Program) graduating students may remain onshore to apply for a work permit for up to one year after graduation, candidates must hold a job offer in their field of qualifications, no labour certification needed , extension possible
<b>UK</b>	In May 2007, the International Graduate Scheme (IGS) was launched and functions as a precursor of the Tier1 post-study category within the general points-based system that came into force in 2008, all non-EEA graduates may remain in the country for up to 12 month in order to compete for work
<b>Ireland</b>	In April 2007, the Third Level Graduate Scheme was implemented, non-EEA graduates are allowed to remain in the country for up to six months in order to apply for a work permit or a green card
<b>Germany</b>	Since 2005, foreign graduates may extend their residence permit for up to one year after graduation in order to find a job that corresponds with their qualifications, for foreign graduates from German higher education institutions the labour market testing was abandoned in late 2007, now only a job offer is required
<b>France</b>	New legislation was introduced in 2006 to encourage the stay of foreign master graduates, they may apply for a residence permit for a period of six months following graduation in order to find a job
<b>The Netherlands</b>	Since 2006, possibility to apply for permanent residency upon graduation, possibility to seek work for six months following graduation
<b>Finland</b>	Migration policy programme encourages the immigration of students, upon graduation they may obtain a work permit to search for a job for up to six months.

Source: Suter, Jandl 2008; OECD 2008a; UK 2008a; BMI 2008; Tremblay 2005.

<http://www.edufrance.fr/en/a-etudier/sejour01-6.htm>, (cited in Wolfeil, 2009).

### ***1.7 Barriers to International Student Mobility***

Student mobility has formed the cornerstone of university education since the early periods all over the world. Despite steady increase in the number of mobile students, it is still being observed that opportunities for education and research created through intensive initiatives undertaken by the governments, programmes for student

exchange/staff mobility are not easily tapped by the students and scholars. The need to identify the reasons for unattractiveness of these efforts is cited in a large volume of literature on the area. It is expected that information on barriers/ obstacles faced by the students would provide direction to the ways in which mobility of students could be increased and facilitated across the countries. Major obstacles to mobility observed and reported in the literature can be grouped under economic barriers, lack of information/motivation, non-recognition of academic merits gained abroad, and discrimination based on gender, age or cultural background (ESIB, 2007).

### ***1.8 Equivalence/Recognition of prior degrees/studies***

The major obstacle to student mobility observed is the concern whether the prior qualifications and competencies of the student may not be recognized worldwide. In fact, proliferation of qualifications worldwide, the diversity of national qualification systems, education and training structures and constant changes in these systems determines the recognition of prior studies undertaken by students. Moreover, recognition/equivalence of qualifications earned by students is important because the academic advantage is considered one of the significant incentives for student mobility. These issues of knowledge transfer also highlight tensions between increasing diversity in higher education systems and efforts to facilitate recognition of prior studies.

Further, recognition issues observed in both cases, i.e., horizontal and vertical mobility need to be addressed. There is need to develop/devise framework for assessing equivalence of qualifications and a credit-transfer system and also their effective implementation. For instance, to facilitate student mobility in European Union, European Credit Transfer System has been developed and is implemented to enhance student mobility among EU.

### ***1.9 Cost of Education Abroad***

Cost of education abroad is one of the important factors that influence the student's decision to move, choice of study venue and education programme. The literature reveals that while some countries such as Britain, Belgium, Australia, USA, Canada charge differential tuition fees to international students, countries like Germany,

France, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden charge no fees or the same fees from all the students. However, the trend to charge differential fees has started in countries which were not charging previously. Denmark started charging tuition fees from non-European Union EU/European Education Area (EEA) students from the academic year 2006-07, institutions in Germany also started charging € 500 (approximately US\$ 660) per semester from new students in winter semester 2006-07; and applied it for all from the summer semester 2007. However, during the year 2007, international students were predominantly charged the same fees as were the domestic students, although the fee was often higher for post-graduate courses such as Masters taught entirely in English.

Comparative analysis of tuition fee for 2007-08 charged by different universities for the similar programmes carried out by Verbik & Lasanowski (2007) reported that 'international students travelling to the leading English-language higher education destinations (the US, the UK and Australia) can expect to pay higher fees than those charged elsewhere. At the University of Sydney in Australia, tuition fees for a Business and Management programme cost approximately US\$18,600 per year, close to US\$21,800 at the UK's Oxford University and more than US\$ 31,450 at the US-based Harvard University. In considerable contrast, the same degree costs less than US\$ 4,500 at China's Shanghai Jiaotong University and Singapore's National University of Singapore, and less than US\$2,000 at the University of Malaya in Malaysia. Whilst international tuition fees are nearly US\$ 11,500 for a Philosophy programme at Laval University in Canada and the University of Otago in New Zealand, philosophy students at Japan's University of Tokyo are required to pay less than US\$4,600, and only a small administrative fee at the University of Paris in France and the University of Heidelberg in Germany'. The analysis also revealed that cost of education in UK and Australia is nearly 12 times higher that of Malaysia, Singapore and China and highest for US, i.e., around 18 times. Further, the tuition fees can vary between courses, institutions, and whether the students are resident or international.

In addition to cost of education, high living costs in the traditionally popular destinations also influence the student's choice to study in a particular country (UKCOSA, 2006; MOE, New Zealand, 2007). For instance, for Chinese students, New

Zealand is a favoured destination for education abroad due to comparable low cost. Even for students from Africa and South East Asia the cost of higher education is a determining factor and it influences the decisions to apply in some countries and deterrent for others. Varghese (2006) also observed that Australia became a favourite destination for students from China, India and other Asian countries because of its less cost of education as compared to UK and USA.

### ***1.10 Lack of Adequate Information and Language Barrier***

Another important factor attributed to restriction of student mobility is insufficient information about study opportunities outside one's local area, i.e., universities/institutions in other countries. Lack of reliable information about educational programmes, quality of institutions and admission procedures etc also limits the possibility of going abroad. This is true even for study abroad programmes of different countries as with respect to semester or year-abroad opportunities, home and host institutions often do not provide enough information on mobility opportunities and do not assure students that they will receive the necessary support before going abroad, during their studies at foreign institutions and after their return. There is fear of loss of academic standing/opportunities by taking different credits at another institution. General language proficiency and cultural integration (culture shock) often hold individuals back from choosing to study abroad. The issue of cultural integration is not limited to students studying abroad but also for the students moving from one part of the country to the other part/state/province (ESIB, 2007; Junor & Usher, 2008).

## **Section II: Trends in International Student Mobility**

Over the years, student mobility has been defined differently by the countries across the globe. As mentioned earlier, student mobility is defined as any academic mobility which takes place within a student's programme of study in post-secondary education. The length of absence can range from a semester to the full programme of study. There are two main types of student mobility: mobility for an entire programme of study (diploma or degree mobility) also referred to as vertical mobility; and for part of a programme or non-degree mobility, studying for a short period as an exchange student, mainly abroad (credit mobility), which is called horizontal mobility. Student mobility can



occur either through organized programmes such as ERASMUS in European Union or exchange programmes among universities and through ‘free movers’, i.e., mobile student’s not taking part in any organized programmes. The terms ‘mobile students’, ‘foreign students’ and ‘international students’ are used interchangeably in the literature relating to student mobility. Consequently, the data reported at the international level becomes highly country/context specific and reflects little or no equivalence and, thereby, making it incomparable.

In 2006, the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) introduced a series of indicators and The Global Education Digest (UNESCO, 2006) provided one of the most comprehensive definitions for ‘internationally mobile students’ as individuals who leave their country or territory of origin and travel to another for the purpose of studying there. The UIS defines ‘Internationally mobile students’ as explained in Box 1.1 given below.

**Box 1.1: How to define internationally mobile students?**

Internationally mobile students leave their country or territory of origin and move to another country or territory with the objective of studying. They can be defined according to the following characteristics:

- Permanent residence: Students can be considered to be mobile students if they are not permanent residents of the host country in which they pursue their studies.
- Prior education: Students can be considered to be mobile students if they obtained the entry qualification to their current level of study in another country. Prior education refers typically to upper secondary education for students enrolled in tertiary programmes.
- Citizenship: Students can be considered to be mobile students if they are not citizens of the host country in which they pursue their studies.

The UIS defines internationally mobile students using the permanent residence and prior education criteria. Non-citizenship is also commonly used as a defining characteristic, especially for data from the European Union (EU) and OECD countries. However, citizenship alone is insufficient to measure the flows of mobile students.

To gain a more comprehensive understanding of mobile students, the UIS – in conjunction with the OECD and EU – is also testing the introduction of the “prior education” criterion (in addition to permanent residency and citizenship).

For the moment, countries still use different criteria to report data on mobile students. As a result, the statistics presented in this report may not be entirely comparable. In addition, this report does not include students in short exchange programmes of one school year or less. For the UIS, these students should only be reported in their country of origin.

*Source:* UNESCO-UIS/OECD/Eurostat, 2008.

Higher education systems of different countries have always been characterized by their international linkages. Also, it is acknowledged that science and research are international and communities of scholars are naturally international. Therefore, student mobility is not a recent phenomenon but increased student mobility during the last two decades is a new trend. Earlier, most of these traditional international linkages used to be conducted with a foremost academic and cultural purpose. On the other hand, much of the transnational education in recent times is conducted with a commercial aim and is referred to in the literature as “international trade in educational services” (OECD, 2004). Accordingly, the opportunities and problems linked to student mobility have also changed substantially in recent years under conditions of expansion of higher education, changing economic and social world order as well as the ongoing interventions for building a ‘Knowledge Society’.

The recent trends as reflected by OECD (2012) indicate that during the last decade, i.e., from the year 2000 to 2010, the number of foreign tertiary students enrolled worldwide has increased by 99 per cent, for an average annual growth rate of 7.1 per cent. In 2010, more than 4.1 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship. The countries hosting the highest percentage of international students among their tertiary enrolments are Luxembourg, Australia, the United Kingdom, Austria, Switzerland and New Zealand. On the other hand China, India and Korea are the largest senders of foreign students. In fact, Asian students represent 52 per cent of the foreign students enrolled worldwide.

The Report pointed out that Europe remains the preferred destination with 41 per cent of all international students while North America has 21 per cent of them. Nevertheless, the Latin America and the Caribbean, Oceania and Asia are the fastest growing regions of destination for international students, as an increasing set of countries are carrying out internationalization of universities. In relative terms, the percentage of international students in tertiary enrollment has also increased in all the 18 OECD countries with available data, except New Zealand, Norway and the United States. The Report reveals that major destinations of foreign students include G20 countries (83%), and OECD countries get 77%; and within the OECD area, EU21 countries host the highest number of foreign students.

After Europe, North America is the second most attractive destination with 21% of all the foreign students. In 2010 almost one out of two foreign students were enrolled in US (17%), UK (13%), Australia (7%), Germany (6% and France (6%). Besides these a significant number of foreign students were enrolled in Canada (5%), Japan (3%) and Spain (2%) in 2010. It is also evident that the share of international students increased in Australia, New Zealand, UK and Russian Federation too. The Report observes that some of these changes reflect the differences in internationalization approaches, ranging from proactive marketing in the Asia-Pacific region to a more local and university-driven approach in the traditionally dominant United States.

The Report also sheds light on the levels and types of tertiary education selected by international students. It is found that higher proportion of international students is enrolled in advanced research programmes compared to tertiary type A (largely theory-based) programmes. For instance, Ireland, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Sweden, Switzerland, the UK, the USA and France, the share in advanced research is higher by more than 15 percentage points. In some countries, namely Belgium (26%), Chile (34%), Japan (24%), Luxemburg (27%), New Zealand (30%), Spain (31%) Greece (36%) and Saudi Arabia (95%) international students are enrolled in tertiary type B (shorter and vocationally-oriented) programmes (OECD, 2012). The GED (2009) provides the detailed data pertaining to international students. According to the Report, more than 2.8 million students were enrolled in educational institutions outside of their country of origin in the year 2007. This represents 123,400 more students than in 2006, an increase of 4.6%. The global number of mobile students has grown by 53% since 1999 (with an average annual increase of 5.5%) and by 2.5 times since 1975 with an average annual increase of 11.7% throughout this period. Similarly, the number of female mobile students has increased and this, at an even faster rate. In 1999, it was estimated that 46% of total mobile students were female; this proportion rose to 49% in 2007 (UNESCO-UIS, 2009). It is projected that there will be 7.2 million international students by 2025 (Boehm, Davis, Meares, and Pearce, 2002).

**Major senders:** China sends the greatest number of students abroad, amounting to almost 421,100. The other major countries of origin are: India (153,300), the Republic of Korea (105,300), Germany (77,500), Japan (54,500), France (54,000), the United States

(50,300), Malaysia (46,500), Canada (43,900) and the Russian Federation (42,900). These ten countries account for 37.5% of the world's mobile students, reported by 153 host countries with such data.

**Major hosts:** The United States hosts the largest number and share of the world's mobile students at 595,900 and 21.3% respectively. It is followed by the United Kingdom (351,500), France (246,600), Australia (211,500), Germany (206,900), Japan (125,900), Canada (68,500), South Africa (60,600), the Russian Federation (60,300) and Italy (57,300). These 11 countries host 71% of the world's mobile students, with 62% of them studying in the top six countries.

Although, the changes in absolute numbers are in many cases striking yet to reflect a general rise in the number of tertiary mobile students the 'outbound mobility ratio' for each region in 1999 and 2007 was calculated. This indicator reflects the number of mobile students expressed as a percentage of total tertiary enrolment. The global outbound mobility ratio was 1.9 per cent in 1999 and was 1.8 per cent in 2007. This means that approximately 2 out of every 100 tertiary students left their home countries to study. Further, the statistic reveals that despite the dramatic rise in absolute numbers, the global share of mobile students has largely remained the same. Thus, globally, student mobility has kept pace with student enrolment but regional averages show significant variations. Between 1999 and 2007, the outbound mobility ratio rose by 1.1 percentage points in Central Asia, followed by 0.8 percentage points in sub-Saharan Africa, 0.5 percentage points in the Arab States and 0.4 points in South and West Asia. In contrast, the ratio fell by 0.5 percentage points in Western Europe over the same period.

Another important revelation the data makes is the expanding of the range in destinations. For instance, despite increase in the absolute number of mobile students in the United States from about 451,900 in 1999 to 595,900 in 2007, its share of the world's mobile students declined. One out of every four mobile students went to the United States in 1999; in 2007, this was the case for only one out of every five students, i.e., a decline of around four percentage points. Thus, the data reflects that the countries which were historically popular destinations saw their share of mobile students grow even higher: Australia, Canada, France, Italy, Japan, New Zealand and South Africa while US and UK

showed little decline in their share. For example, France saw its share of global mobile students grow from 7.4% in 1999 to 8.8% in 2007. Due to global shifts in destinations, the following countries emerged as new popular destinations: China, the Republic of Korea and New Zealand.

Another trend shown by the report is that students are increasingly staying within their region of origin. In Latin America and the Caribbean, for instance, the percentage of mobile students remaining within the region has risen from 11% in 1999 to 23% in 2007. In East Asia and the Pacific, two out of every five mobile students (42%) remained within the region in 2007 compared to 36% in 1999. Western Europe (77%) and North America (39%) showed little change in comparison to 1999.

The information regarding what types of programmes are in demand globally is important for policymaking. The policymakers are able to identify deficits in their local tertiary systems and also keep track of the acquired skills of their students abroad and to devise initiatives to attract them back home as part of larger efforts to reduce the impact of 'brain drain'. Host countries are also looking to better understand the preferences of mobile students. In 2007, almost one in four mobile students (23%) was enrolled in *Business and Administration* programmes. *Science* is the second most popular field, attracting 15% of mobile student enrolment, followed by *Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction* (14%) and *Humanities and Arts* (14%). Broad trends in preferences by region (e.g., students from the Latin America and the Caribbean region prefer *Business and Administration*, according to data from the US) may suggest a link to the needs of labour markets in students' countries of origin. On the other hand, only 3% of mobile students are enrolled in *Education* (compared to 9% of the local student body). *Services* attract just 2% of mobile students but 5% of local students. Finally, *Agriculture* is the least popular field among both the groups. Mobile students from different regions seem to have different preferences regarding their field of education. Take mobile students studying in the United States as an example. As many as 53% of mobile students from South and West Asia studied *Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction* or *Mathematics and Computer Science* programmes in 2007. In contrast, mobile students from Latin America and the Caribbean seem to prefer *Business and Administration* programmes (29%). Similarly, a large number of mobile students from sub-Saharan

Africa study *Business and Administration* (26%), while *Health and Welfare* (14%) is also a popular field of education (UNESCO-UIS, 2009) with the mobile students.

Thus, in this section, the analysis of trend in international students mobility was based on the available data on absolute number of foreign students and their distribution by countries of destination around the world, as well as subjects/disciplines of study.

### **Section III: Student Mobility in India**

Student mobility from India to abroad and vice versa has a long history. The ancient Indian universities welcomed students and scholars from other countries such as China, Sri Lanka, Nepal, Tibet, Korea, Japan etc. in the famous institutions, such as, Nalanda, Vikramshila, Vallabhi, Takshashila (now in Pakistan) and others. A variety of subjects such as logic, law and grammar, philosophy, religion, medicine, literature, drama and arts, astrology, mathematics and sociology were taught and masterpieces on these subjects have been written. While some of these centres of learning continued their work throughout the medieval period, some famous centres of Islamic learning at places like Delhi, Lahore (now in Pakistan), Rampur, Lucknow, Allahabad, Jaunpur, Ajmer and Bidar also attracted scholars and students from other countries. But unfortunately these traditions did not survive and the European universities emerged as centres of discourse and learning. Later, during the nineteenth century and early part of twentieth century universities in the European countries became the seat of learning for students from their colonies (Report, GOI, 1966). However, in the post independence period, the university education system has grown tremendously to become third largest in the world after China and USA and is host to large number of foreign students. Many reputed universities, mostly the Central universities situated in Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Calcutta, Bangalore and some state universities such as Mysore, Pune have continued attracting foreign students since independence. Nevertheless, the efforts to attract and enhance foreign student's presence on the campus were little and none of the Reports of various Commissions and National Education Policy documents made any reference to internationalization of Indian higher education. Therefore, despite the presence of many foreign students on the campuses of our metropolitan Universities, India has not adopted any well defined policy regarding them (Powar and Bhalla, 2000). Thus, higher education

in the country has remained largely inward looking even in the post independence period. It is in this context this section attempts to understand and analyze the trends in outflow of Indian students to other countries for gaining higher education.

### **3.1 Trends in outflow of Indian Students**

Indian students are visiting other countries around the world for higher education. The trend has gained momentum during the last decade. It is evident from the data that the number of Indian students studying in foreign universities has grown from 53,266 to 1,90,781 during the period 2000-2009 reflecting 258 per cent growth (UNESCO). The data further indicates that the demand for higher education in foreign universities/countries among the Indian students has been steady as depicted by the annual growth rates which have remained over 8 per cent, except for the year 2005-06 (Table 3.1.1). The share of girls going abroad for higher education was 27 per cent (UNESCO, 2010). The share of Indian mobile students internationally in 2009 was around 6.2 per cent - the second largest group of students from a single country, after China (15.9%).

**Table 3.1.1**  
**Growth in Number of Indian Students Abroad**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Total Number of Indian students abroad</b>	<b>Annual growth rate</b>
1998	8003	
1999	47305	491
2000	53266	13
2001	58683	10
2002	91189	55
2003	110716	21
2004	125881	14
2005	138072	10
2006	136238	-1
2007	154116	13
2008	176454	14
2009	190781	8

*Region-wise out-flow* of Indian students during the period 1999-2010 reveals that apart from traditionally favoured North America and Western European countries, countries in the East Asia and the Pacific region are also gaining attention as destination for higher education among Indian students.

**Table 3.1.2**  
**Region-wise distribution of Indian Students in the period 1998-2010**

Region	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Arab States	230	4	11	11	350	347	389	367	365	957	1023
Central and Eastern Europe	486	352	623	631	589	875	2287	2375	2781	7343	7315
Central Asia	666	682	1054	226	985	1313	1624	1990	1628	2260	1637
East Asia & the Pacific	4236	5726	1260	11931	15069	19333	23172	24282	29089	33263	34781
Latin America and the Caribbean	21	25	19	24	5	18	3	12	17	62	200
North America & Western Europe	41609	46473	55687	78362	93713	103930	110548	107152	120209	132557	145814
South & West Asia	0	0	0	0	0	56	45	48	25	10	2
Sub Saharan Africa	57	4	29	4	5	9	4	12	2	2	9
<b>Total</b>	<b>47305</b>	<b>53266</b>	<b>58683</b>	<b>91189</b>	<b>110716</b>	<b>125881</b>	<b>138072</b>	<b>136238</b>	<b>154116</b>	<b>176454</b>	<b>190781</b>

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2012), Data center, Available online at  
[http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/document.aspx?ReportId=136&IF\\_Language=eng&BR\\_Topic=0](http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/document.aspx?ReportId=136&IF_Language=eng&BR_Topic=0)  
<http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/tableView.aspx>, Accessed on 22nd Oct 2012

Over the years, the number of destinations accessed by Indian students for higher education has increased. About a decade ago, major proportion of students sought admissions in the USA, while some went to the UK and Australia and few other European countries.

**Table 3.1.3**  
**Major Destinations of Indian Students**

Country	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United States of America	34504	39084	47411	66836	74603	79736	84044	79219	85687	94664	101563
Australia	3697	4578	--	9539	12384	15742	20515	22357	24523	26520	26573
UK and Northern Ireland	3922	3962	4302	6016	10422	14625	16685	19204	23833	25901	34065
China	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	7234	---
Singapore	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	6700	---
Russian Federation	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	4314	4286
New Zealand	73	201	355	952	1205	1698	1563	--	2452	4094	5710
Canada	804	969	1314	1830	2472	2724	2829	1812	3219	3501	---
Germany	1004	1282	1412	2196	3429	4237	4339	3585	3421	3257	3273
Ukraine	---	---	---	---	---	---	957	1170	1466	1785	2180
Malaysia	91	714	497	965	930	844	---	813	897	1065	1152

Source: ibid

However, in recent years, Indian students can be seen in large number of countries though the USA and the UK have been the favoured choices (Table 3.1.3). Australia, Malaysia, Singapore, New Zealand, Canada, China and Russian federation are also attracting Indian students. Reasons for this increase in Indian mobile students vary



from improving socio-economic situation, higher aspirations to other attractive factors such as more/better employment opportunities, status, lifestyle and chances for migration. At the same time countries/universities are adopting policies to attract more and more foreign students.

The favoured fields of study for Indian students going abroad for higher education include Engineering, Mathematics and Computer Sciences, Business and Management, and Physical and Life Sciences. Interestingly, the trend is not very different from the demand of subjects within the country (Table 3.1.4). The unprecedented high demand for engineering subjects abroad has implications not only on access but also quality of programmes offered in the country. The concerns become deeper as it is perceived that apart from some institutions, the quality of education programmes is contestable. Demand for Business and Management education programmes is increasing in order to cater to global market needs. The changing economic scenario globally is influencing the choice of subjects for study and is one of the factors driving mobility of students.

**Table 3.1.4**  
**Field-wise Distribution of International Students in 2010/11**

<b>FIELDS OF STUDY BY INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS, 2010/11, in %</b>		
<b>Field of Study</b>	<b>India</b>	<b>Total</b>
Business and Management	15.2	21.5
Engineering	36.9	18.7
Physical and Life Sciences	11.4	8.8
Math and Computer Science	19.8	8.9
Social Sciences	3.0	8.8
Fine and Applied Arts	1.3	5.1
Health Professions	4.9	4.5
Intensive English Language	0.7	4.5
Education	1.0	2.3
Humanities	0.6	2.2
Agriculture	-	1.4
Other Fields of Study	4.7	10.5
Undeclared	0.5	2.8
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Institute of International Education. (2011). "Fields of Study for the Top 25 Places of Origin, 2010/11." *Open Doors Report on International Educational Exchange*. Retrieved from <http://www.iie.org/opendoors>

The scenario depicted above reflects the increased outward mobility of students to other destinations. There are many factors, both domestic as well as international, which

are driving this phenomenon. The data predicts growth in the number of Indian students going abroad, yet the trends reveal that in addition to US and UK, many new destinations are emerging. In order to accrue benefits of increasingly competitive market environment, host countries are adopting policies for marketing their higher education programmes to attract foreign students.

### ***3.2 Policy Initiatives and Developments in India***

During the nineteenth century and early part of twentieth century, universities in the European countries became the seat of learning for students from their colonies (University Education Commission Report, 1949; Kothari Commission Report, 1966; Powar, 2003). In the post- independence period, the university education system in India has grown tremendously to become the third largest in the world, after China and USA. There was some reversal in the trend and India, too, began to attract foreign students mainly from Asian, African and Arab sub-continent on a very modest scale. Despite the presence of foreign students on the campuses of our metropolitan Universities, the modest number of foreign students in India could not attract the attention of policy makers so far (Powar and Bhalla, 2000). Higher education in the country has remained largely inward looking even in the post-independence period.

In terms of practices, the movement of foreign students in Indian campuses was looked at from the point of view of strengthening cultural relations. Indian Council for Cultural Relations (ICCR), an autonomous organization, was set up in 1950 to facilitate exchange of scholars and academicians in a selective way through the award of scholarships (Aggarwal, 2008). Current thinking goes beyond cultural dimension of student exchange. Influence of globalization and the path breaking revolution in information and communication technology has given great impetus to the process of internationalization of higher education. Due to increasing importance of services sector including education services, education is now recognized as a tradable service sector under the General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS). Universities in many countries started searching for foreign universities of repute with which academic collaboration is possible to develop academic linkages, involving exchange programmes

and bilateral agreements as well as collaborative ventures with foreign universities/institutions. India, being the signatory to the GATS, is under obligation to liberalise the education sector. In the era of globalization, there is tremendous pressure to make higher education outward looking.

The shift from inward looking policy in higher education to outward looking policy is creating tremendous strains on policy making. The objective of education as a social service was long cherished. Education is now considered as a commodity/tradable service (Bhushan and Bhatnagar, 2005). It has implications for the curriculum and teaching process most suited for the employment (Knight, 2007). In other words, applicability of knowledge is considered important. The earlier emphasis on theoretical knowledge and consideration of applicability during apprenticeship is no more relevant. This means that a country which is able to make higher education relevant and sensitive to employment can attract students. The outward looking character of higher education has created pressures for enhanced mobility of students through the changes anticipated in curriculum design and teaching. Student mobility is considered important in order to gain experiences from diverse campus. It would increase the employability of students.

During the last two decades, the impact of globalization differed vastly in different countries. The developed nations anticipated the opportunities and their universities started planning and exploring the possibilities of exporting education abroad. Indian initiatives in this context includes signing/ratifying the UNESCO convention for recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in higher education in Asia and the Pacific in September 2000. The UGC reported in its Tenth Five Year Plan Document that “promotion of internationalisation and export of higher education including the study of India abroad programme” as one of the thrust areas (UGC, 2002, p.44). Further, AIU was made responsible for equivalence and mutual recognition of qualifications. Thus, the efforts towards increase in student and professional mobility gained impetus since the year 2000. In another significant development, the AIU on behalf of the Indian universities signed an agreement on co-operation in higher education in 1999, with Australian Vice-Chancellors’ Committee (AVCC) which provided for sharing of information, staff and student exchanges, mutual recognition of qualifications,

staff development, researchers' exchange programme and university management. Government, in order to attract more foreign students to Indian Universities, permitted 15% supernumerary seats in all the institutions for foreign/NRI students. Besides, the Government also constituted the Committee on Promotion of Indian Education Abroad (COPIEA) in April 2002, under the chairmanship of Secretary, Department of Secondary and Higher Education. The major aim was that COPIEA would monitor all activities aimed at promoting Indian education abroad and will regulate the operation of foreign educational institutions to safeguard the interests of the students and the larger national interest as well. It was decided to initiate a system of registration under which institutions will have to furnish information on operations and adhere to certain guidelines relating to publicity, maintenance of standards, charging of fees, granting of degrees, etc. It was expected that the COPIEA would, over a period of time, develop sectoral policy on foreign direct investment in the education sector (10<sup>th</sup> FYP, Vol.2).

Under the "Promotion of Indian Education Abroad" (PIHEAD), during the 10<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (2002 – 07), UGC identified several countries for targeting to attract international students to India. These countries were identified, based on several criteria such as country profiles (demographic and economic) taking into consideration, present state of their Higher Education and Training System, skill gaps, programmes in demand in them. UGC also participated in NAFSA 58<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference, at Montreal Quebec, Canada in May 2006. MHRD authorized Educational Consultants (India) Limited (Ed.CIL), a public sector undertaking of the government, to act as a single window agency for recruiting international students. The government has created an exclusive scheme called Direct Admission of Students Abroad (DASA), wherein 15 % seats have been reserved in premier technical institutions such as the National Institutes of Technology (formerly the Regional Engineering Colleges) and the centrally funded institutions for Foreign Nationals/People of Indian Origin (PIOs)/Non-Resident Indians (NRIs). Besides this, Ed.CIL has taken up schemes to promote Indian Education Abroad by representing Indian higher education institutions in Educational Fairs in other countries also.

In the year 2008, Prime Minister Shri Manmohan Singh constituted an inter-ministerial committee, headed by former Director General of Indian Council of Cultural Relations, regarding 'Welfare of Foreign Students in India'. The Report of the Committee was submitted in the year end and approved for circulation among stakeholders. Recommendations made by the committee regarding measures that include making proper advertisement in foreign countries about Indian culture, education system, reputed universities and courses offered by them, easing of admission process, on-line admission and urgent visa clearance for research scholars and so on. Detailed modalities for implementation of the measures are being worked out. Establishing of International Students' Centres in every University is the major suggestion for which UGC is to provide funds to the universities and responsibility of monitoring the implementation of recommendations has been given to ICCR. Thus, it is apparent that initiatives to promote student mobility have occupied a prominent place in the government's agenda.

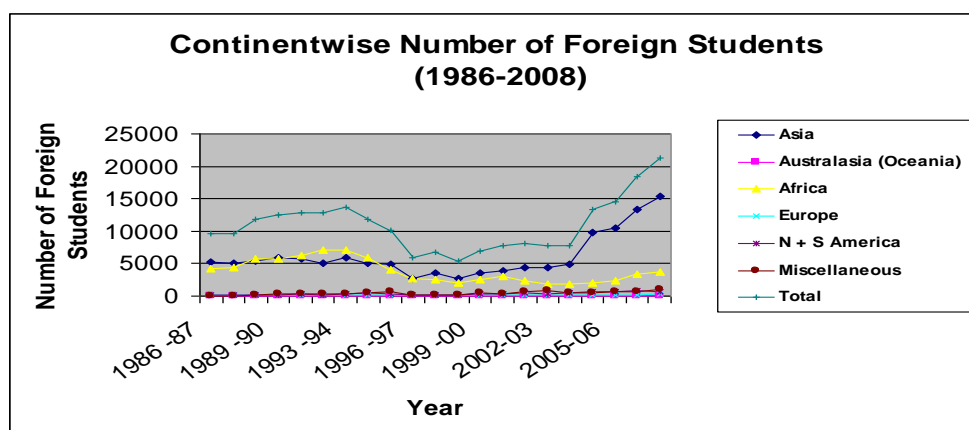
### ***3.3 Trends in Inflow of International Students in Indian Universities***

The databases from AIU and UGC reveal that Indian universities and colleges hosted students from 90 countries as early as in the year 1988-89. Since then, the average number of countries sending students to India has increased over the years. These students are found to be coming from the developed countries even that are technologically advanced and economically strong and have good facilities for higher education and training at home (e.g., USA, UK, Canada, Australia, countries of the European Union and Japan) as well as the less developed and developing countries (the countries of Southeast Asia, Western Asia and Africa) with limited facilities for education.

During the last two decades, the number of foreign students joining Indian universities revealed as steady increase in enrolments till mid-nineties; the strength of foreign students nearly halved in the year 1996-97 and thereafter remained stagnant till 1999-2000. In the twenty-first century again, universities are witnessing increase in the number of international students. The number of foreign students in Indian higher education institutions in the year 2007-08 was the highest at 21206.

The data points out that, on an average, nearly half of the foreign students came from Asian countries, throughout their proportion increased to around two-thirds in the last couple of years. Since 2005-06 onwards, the share of foreign students from Asian countries in Indian universities has remained around 73 per cent while the number of African students' has steadily increased. Their population was the highest during the nineties, it varied between 40-50 % and was as high as 52 % in 1993-94.

**Figure 3.3.1**



But, since 2000-01 onwards, the population of African students has shown decline in regard to their share which remained around one-fifth of the total international students. Proportion of foreign students from countries of other regions remained within 10 per cent of total foreign students in the country during the period.

*Regional distribution* of foreign students for the years 2004-05 to 2007-08 has reflected that presence of foreign students from South and Central Asia was the highest, followed by students from Western Asia. Contribution of East African countries in terms of sending foreign students has increased to 14.5 per cent while share of students coming from South East Asia has remained stable. However, over the years, not much change in terms of increase or decrease in number of foreign students has been observed from any particular region. This observation may indicate the lack of effort/additional efforts on part of Indian universities in attracting the students from any particular region or country.

The *country-wise* and *region-wise* analysis of data regarding the number of students studying in Indian higher education institutions during the period 1986-2008 revealed striking variations during the last two decades. There was a steady increase in

the number of foreign students in early nineties; the number reached a record high of over 13,000 students in 1993-94 but thereafter, the number declined steadily. By the year 1996-97, the enrolment of foreign students had reached upto half. This change in trend can be attributed to two factors, firstly at this point of time the internationalization of education was occurring at a faster pace and many developed countries such as USA, UK, Australia started promoting and marketing of their higher education programmes; in this process they took initiatives to improve their universities even at national level to market their education abroad and attract more students in order to reduce their fiscal pressure. During this period of internationalization, many other countries like France, Germany, Canada and Netherlands also emerged as educational destinations for mobile students. Impact of these initiatives resulted in increase in market-oriented delivery of higher education across borders, often by the institutions run for profit (Sanyal and Martin, 2006). During this period, India was inactive and initiatives in this regard were lacking. The profiles of sending countries reveal that the students who were coming to Indian universities were mostly from the neighboring countries and African countries which had less developed higher education systems. These countries were the ones which had large number of Indian Diaspora. Reputation of some established Indian universities also influenced the inflow of foreign students. However, the beginning of twenty-first century witnessed a reversal in this trend and the number of foreign students started increasing since 2001-02. These changes may have occurred due to policies adopted in the wake of 10<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan and setting up of committees like COPIEA by UGC and programme initiative called PIHEAD to promote higher education abroad in a systematic manner and targeting countries for increase in number of students. These efforts paid off and consequently the number of foreign students has increased significantly from the targeted countries during the last couple of years.

International students' participation from the countries like China and Japan in the East Asian region remained stable while the number of North Korean students increased sharply in the year 2005-06 and increased further during the next years. Data analysis further reveals that countries representing West Asian region reflected variations. Number of students from Jordan and Kuwait had started increasing, yet they sent lesser number of students as compared to countries like Bahrain and Yemen which have picked

up in the twenty first century. Enrolment of students from Oman and Qatar too, has increased significantly. Participation of students from UAE also has increased steeply in the last three years. This increase in foreign students' enrolment may be accounted to the fact that these countries have a large Indian Diaspora and the UGC's initiatives to promote Indian higher education in these regions by participating in the Educational Fair,-Ed.CIL also participated and conducted educational promotional activities in this region.

In the South Asia and Central Asian region, Iran and Nepal are the largest senders of foreign students. Students from other countries, namely Afghanistan, Sri Lanka, Bhutan and Bangladesh also have a large presence in Indian institutions of higher education. Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore and Vietnam in the Southeast Asia are the major countries which send students to Indian institutions. The number of students from Eastern Africa was quite high in 2007-08 and their number reaching up to 3066. The Eastern African countries sending maximum number of students are Ethiopia (1289), Kenya (592), Tanzania (366) and Mauritius (277).

Despite the fact that the number of students are increasing in the recent years yet not much change was observed in students coming from European countries; students' inflow from American continent, mainly Canada and USA had doubled during the period 2000-01 to 2007-08. In this context, *Open Doors 2008* reports that 'American students are more frequently choosing non-traditional study abroad destinations. This increase is fueled in part by an increase in new programme opportunities, partnerships between higher education institutions in the United States and abroad, and a range of fields and programme durations to accommodate the needs of an increasingly diverse study abroad population and partly by the emphasis on study abroad as an institution-wide priority'.

*Country-wise analysis* of student data in the year 2007-08 further revealed that 65 per cent of the foreign students came from low and lower middle income group countries. Nearly one-fourth share of students belonged to high income countries while the representation of upper middle income countries was as low as 6 per cent. This has implications on target countries in which initiatives to promote higher education to be concentrated and identification of areas to be promoted for attracting high income group country students. The Top Ten Countries which send major share of foreign students in



the country are presented in the Table 3.3.1. During the last two decades, analysis of country-wise participation revealed that the number of countries participating/sending students in the Indian higher education institutions has increased from 88 in 1986-87 to 125 in 2007-08. Iran and Nepal occupy the topmost slots of sending the maximum number of students with UAE and Ethiopia following closely. The proportion of students coming from top ten countries in the last couple of years has increased to 56 per cent. Out of 125 countries in 2007-08, ten countries are contributing more than half of foreign students studying in Indian Universities; this strongly indicates the amount of efforts needed to attract students from other countries of world.

**Table 3.3.1**  
**International Students in Indian Universities**  
**(Top Ten Countries)**

Countries	Income Group	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08
Iran	Low middle	1120	1264	2180	2669
Nepal	Low	1352	1411	1728	1821
United Arab Emirate	High	1500	2034	1878	1560
Ethiopia	Low	226	302	1033	1289
Sri Lanka	Lower middle	582	530	466	997
Afghanistan	Low	35	65	422	976
Saudi Arabia	High	419	551	771	835
Bahrain	High	382	481	446	600
Kenya	Low	418	523	621	592
Oman	High	646	505	608	548
<b>Total</b>		<b>6680</b>	<b>7666</b>	<b>10153</b>	<b>11887</b>
<b>Total no. of foreign students in the year</b>		<b>13267</b>	<b>14456</b>	<b>18391</b>	<b>21206</b>
<b>% share of Top ten countries</b>		<b>50</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>56</b>

Source: AIU 2009

Out of these ten top countries, six countries belong to low/lower middle income group and the remaining four to high income group. These six low/lower middle income groups send the 40 per cent of total number of foreign students studying in the Indian institutions. Contribution of SAARC countries, namely Nepal, Sri Lanka, Afghanistan, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Maldives, Myanmar, Pakistan was around one-fourth in the year 2007-08 and around 45 per cent of total foreign students belonged to the UMIOR<sup>1</sup> member countries.

<sup>1</sup> UMIOR member countries (2007-08): Iran, United Arab Emirate, Sri Lanka, Kenya, Oman, Yemen, Thailand, Mauritius, Bangladesh, Tanzania, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, South Africa, Mozambique, Australia, Seychelles and Madagascar.

*University/Institution-wise participation of foreign students* is not uniform in terms of institutions being attended by them. The inflow of foreign students has been quite high in some universities as revealed by their websites during the last two years and in many other there presence varies from less to negligible to total absence. For instance, University of Pune reported around 14,000 foreign students in their campus, University of Mysore has more than 1500 students from 50 countries. Symbiosis International University reported that they have students from 60 different countries on their campuses while Manipal University is the preferred destination for students from over 50 countries. Number of international students in IGNOU has increased steeply during the last couple of years, especially after designing special information booklets for foreign students and by adopting single window approach. As per the data available, the top ten universities hosting the highest number of international students are given in Table 3.3.2.

**Table 3.3.2**  
**Top Ten Indian Universities with International Students in 2007-2008)**

	<b>Universities</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>
1.	University of Pune, Pune	2791	1016	<b>3807</b>
2.	University of Mysore, Mysore	859	453	<b>1312</b>
3.	Manipal University, Manipal	537	689	<b>1226</b>
4.	University of Delhi, Delhi	660	471	<b>1131</b>
5.	Osmania University, Hyderabad	559	123	<b>682</b>
6.	Alagappa University, Karaikudi	288	280	<b>568</b>
7.	Jamia Hamdard, New Delhi	337	172	<b>509</b>
8.	Bharati Vidyapeeth, Pune	359	135	<b>494</b>
9.	Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi , <i>Enrolment under Distance Education Mode</i>	2843	1625	<b>4468</b>
10.	Symbiosis International University, Pune <i>Enrolment under Distance Education Mode</i>	NA	NA	<b>2178</b>
	<b>Total</b>	<b>9233</b>	<b>4964</b>	<b>16375</b>

Source: AIU 2009

*Faculty-wise Enrolment of International Students* in the Indian Universities/ colleges revealed a striking variation in trends. During the period 2002-06, nearly 70% of students were enrolled in general education (i.e. Arts, Science, Commerce and Management) courses, though variations among the three faculties existed. The trend of enrolment in Faculty of Arts has increased by 5 per cent while Faculty of Sciences has

shown a prominent decline of 13 per cent from 2002-03 to 2005-06. Enrolments in Faculty of Commerce and Management have increased. The decrease in general education share manifested as rise in enrolment in education, Engineering & Technology and more clearly in medical science. Agricultural Sciences, Veterinary Sciences, Law and other courses/programmes have remained stable during the period.

**Table 3.3.3**  
**Faculty-wise Enrolment of International Students**  
**in the Indian Universities & Colleges (2002-06)**

*(in percentage)*

Sl. No.	Faculty	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
1	Arts	20.01	20.08	25.47	25.05
2	Science	27.29	20.08	16.32	13.84
3	Comm.& Management	25.78	27.92	25.57	29.24
4	Education	1.60	1.94	3.17	2.80
5	Eng. & Technology	8.91	7.21	10.33	9.53
6	Medical Sciences	9.74	11.04	12.13	12.49
7	Agricultural Sciences	0.83	0.63	1.35	1.21
8	Veterinary Sciences	0.11	0.08	0.20	0.19
9	Law	2.41	2.03	2.31	2.26
10	Others	3.33	3.59	3.15	3.39

Source: Universities Development in India, Basic Facts and Figures, Enrolment of International students in Indian Universities/institutions of higher education (2002-03 to 2003-04, 2004-05 to 2005-06), UGC, Information and Statistics Bureau, 2007

The increase in the enrolment in Agricultural Sciences, Engineering and Technology and Medical Sciences programmes during the last couple of years may be due to increase in scholarship offered by Government of India and other collaborative countries in these years through EDCIL and ICAR. ICCR is also offering scholarship for courses related to culture. The share of foreign students opting science courses in the university has fallen significantly from 27 per cent in 2002-03 to 13.84 per cent in 2005-06. The data obtained for international students further revealed and corroborated the declining enrolment trends in the science programmes for domestic students as well. This is an alarming situation, which further indicates that quality and relevance of science courses being offered in the universities/colleges need to be upgraded significantly.

*Share of International girl students in different faculties* has increased slightly, that is, from 34.59 per cent to 39.3 per cent during the period 2002-03 to 2005-06.

Nevertheless, their presence in different disciplines/faculties has not reflected much variation over the years but among the disciplines variation is significant. The share of girls in almost all the disciplines has increased during the period, except veterinary sciences where the girls share has dropped by 7 per cent. The discipline most favoured by the girls is 'Education'; more than 85 per cent of the students enrolled in it were girls in 2005-06. This reflected that the education courses are being much largely accessed by girls than by boys. More than half of foreign students enrolled in Medical Sciences are girls, yet, on the other hand share of girls in Engineering & Technology courses is only 19 per cent and has remained stable over the years. Thus out of 10% of foreign students who come for Engineering & Technology courses the population of girls is very less. This may be due to lack of seats or institutions specifically catering to girl students in these areas and this also has serious implication on the type of courses and places available in higher education institutions in the country.

Another important dimension is the type of programme in which international students enroll. In fact, the data pointed out that although foreign students are enrolled in different educational programmes and institutions across the country, yet major proportion of foreign students joins Undergraduate programmes; nearly one-fourth of them enroll themselves in Post-graduate programmes. Short duration programmes including certificate and diploma programmes were favoured by around 8 per cent of foreign students in 2005-06. Foreign students' enrolment is usually the lowest in M.Phil programme though it is on the incline. In general, this programme is a stepping stone for research programmes and the share of students continuing for doctoral programme is also low. Nevertheless, the shift in trend is visible as the share of students enrolling in undergraduate programmes has decreased by 10 per cent during the four-year period while there is slight increase in enrolment in Post-graduate programmes.

#### **Section IV: Foreign Students' Perspectives**

In order to make Indian higher education attractive to foreign students, it is necessary to understand the perspectives of foreign students studying in higher education institutions in India. It is crucial to put the results into the context of the global higher

education market as it is a fact that out of more than two million international students studying outside their country, India and China send the most. Recently, a study has been conducted on ‘foreign students in India’ at NUEPA<sup>2</sup> in order to explore the experiences of foreign students regarding the education programmes and facilities in the higher education institutions in the country. A survey of foreign students studying in Indian universities/colleges formed a part of this study. More than 500 students studying in colleges/departments of ten different universities were approached. The responses of 187 students obtained are analyzed and presented. These responses were obtained through a structured questionnaire, through face-to-face interaction during the visits to these universities and some through e mail. The sample consisted of 97 male and 90 female students. Out of these, 96 students were enrolled in undergraduate programme, 59 students were continuing their post-graduate education while 32 were engaged in research programmes leading to M.Phil or Ph.D degree. These 187 foreign students belonged to 38 countries across the world. Further, Continent-wise analysis of these students revealed that the share of students from South Central Asian countries was the highest at 35 per cent, followed by 23 per cent from East Asia and 20 per cent from the Middle East. European students constituted 12 per cent while Africa and Central Asian students were 4 and 6 per cent respectively. Major observations emerging from the analysis are presented in the following paragraphs.

*Perception of India as a destination for study abroad programmes-* The responses obtained from almost all the students revealed that they see India as a destination for study abroad because of its ‘Soft features’ (such as traditional and cultural heritage, lifestyle, safety, arts and cultural offer, low cost of living standards), social sciences and currently the market oriented courses of medical and engineering.

*Reason for studying in Indian higher education institutions-* In general, the motivations to pursue an education programme in other countries were to experience new ways of thinking and studying different fields of study, to improve chances for an

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<sup>2</sup> Snehi, N. and Wizarat, K. (2012), Report of research study ‘Foreign Students in India’, NUEPA, New Delhi, (mimeo).

international career. The sample students cited a number of reasons for studying in India. They are:

- Quality of higher education- one of the major criterion for deciding destination study abroad is the quality of education. More than three-fourth proportion of the sample students reported that they were looking for better quality education in order to enhance their employability prospects in their home country. They joined those institutions which were providing the subjects/programmes of their choice. Another major criterion for them was the recognition of academic degrees at home labour market and at international level.
- One-fourth of the sample students reported that in addition to recognition and equivalence of degrees, quality of teaching and learning methods and the duration of study programme are also important for determining the education programme to study.
- One-third of the students reported limited access to high quality education in their home country or lack of opportunities to specialize in their subject area as the major reasons to study abroad. It was reported that availability of work opportunities during their studies and after graduation resulting in extended stay is also the motivating factor.
- Cost of education also emerged as the major criterion for selection of the destination for studying abroad. As many as 82 per cent of the sample attributed their choice to lower financial investments in India as compared to other developed countries.
- Country-wise preferences were also found to differ; for instance, students from the Middle East and African countries are mostly self-sponsored and have come for personal development and personal interest while students from Sri Lanka reported that they have joined Indian Universities because English is the language of teaching and secondly, time taken to complete a particular course is less as compared to their own country.

- Another important dimension for choosing India as a destination was to gain social and cultural experiences as three-fourth of the sample students came to study in India as part of Study Exchange Programmes. For nearly half of these students, the visit was part of their main course requirements while half of them were mainly interested in developing networks to enhance inter-cultural interests

*Choice of educational programmes-* One fourth of the sample student revealed that they preferred short term courses (varying between 5 months to 12 months) and had come through ‘student-exchange’ programme or for completing a mandatory term in the educational programme or for gaining exposure as course requirement. While those from the neighboring countries like Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Pakistan and others had enrolled for full-time undergraduate/post-graduate degree courses, including research in various subjects, ranging from English, B.Com, Political Science, Fine Arts and Music, Environmental Science, Law etc. Students from Taiwan, Thailand and Vietnam mostly opted for Buddhist studies. These differences in the student’s choices reflect the various needs in terms of the educational programmes offered.

*Information about the programme-* Information about the higher education system and the education programmes offered is essential for any student during his decision making process. Almost all the sample students reported that reported information in Indian education opportunities was limited and difficult to access. Half of the sample students revealed that they obtained the details from the Indian Higher Commission of the respective country. Other sources such as Internet, friends and seniors, funding agencies provided information to 15 per cent of sample students whereas only 4 per cent stated that they applied in response to advertisement by individual university. But the major concern voiced was the difficulty to judge whether the obtained information was reliable and complete. The students from the target countries reported that education fairs helped them significantly as they got the opportunity to meet face to face with representatives of foreign institutions.

*Problems faced by foreign students* – Foreign students enrolled in various colleges and universities reported that they were facing a number of problems during their course of study.

- Major obstacle faced by the students as pointed out was the absence of student support services at university/college to provide guidance and support for choosing education programme, ranking of universities, complicated visa procedures, registration and renewal of visa/passport, managing/opening of bank accounts. Absence of single window for taking care of admission and immigration regulations/enquiry processes was a bigger handicap.
- Foreign student face difficulties in dealing with Universities'/colleges' administration department for procedures and processes related to their education programmes, stay etc.
- Most of the sample students had come to India either through student exchange programmes or on scholarships. Around 40 per cent of foreign students pointed out that apart from few scholarships and concessions, there were no other ways to support their expenses and many of them had taken up part-time jobs to manage their cost related issues. They found it difficult to get appropriate information on scholarships from individual universities, member states or from the UGC, living costs, tuition fees etc.
- Students perceived diversity of languages too, as a barrier to communication and diversity of cultures confusing.
- They faced difficulties in getting information regarding English medium programmes or language teaching facilities and requested strongly for a ranking of universities in terms of quality of programmes in different subjects/courses separately. Nearly half of them stated that they were unable to cope up with the teaching in the classroom and felt that adoption of other methods, along with lecture methods, would be of help to them.



- Lack of faculty support in the institutions was highlighted by two-third of sample students.

*Availability of infrastructural facilities-* Responses related to facilities provided by the universities to foreign students revealed that-

- Lack of hostel facilities was pointed out, as around 40 per cent were staying in alternative accommodations, either with friends or as paying guest due to unavailability of hostel facilities at the university/college.
- Around 60 per cent of students reported lack of banking and medical facilities in their institutions.
- Availability of library facilities was pointed out by nearly all; while the absence of laboratory/equipments was reported by 60 per cent students. 60 per cent of sample students reported availability of sports and ICT facilities in their campuses.

Thus, the discussion of the responses obtained from the foreign students studying in Indian universities/colleges reflects on the nature and extent of their facilitation. At the same time, it reveals what more needs to be done at the policy level and its implementation at the university and college level. In this context, identification and preparation for the emerging challenges to be faced by the higher education institutions is a priority concern.

### **Section V: Challenges Faced by Indian Higher Education Institutions**

The impact of strategies leading to internationalization of higher education in developed countries has filtered down to higher education institutions in other countries. Consequently, the dynamics and patterns of student mobility are changing. In India also, its impact initiated the process of internationalization of education. However, there is still a long road to traverse and many challenges need to be faced. The discussion presented in earlier sections highlights some of the urgent needs in order to promote and internationalize Indian higher education.

***Policies and instruments-*** Universities and other higher education institutions operate in an increasingly international environment. Many of them run international marketing campaigns and recruit students on a global scale. Even those which do not engage in such activities are sometimes flooded with student applications from all over the world. Therefore, policies and instruments for the admission of international students form the backbone of the system. Despite the extent of developments taken place in the higher education sector during the last two decades particularly, there is an absence of an *explicit policy framework* at national level on the part of government, UGC and universities to provide necessary impetus to initiatives for promoting student mobility. It is a challenge to formulate a clear-cut policy framework one in order to spell out the aims and then pursue the same with planned strategies.

***Identifying target student population-*** The knowledge of the way Indian higher education is perceived in other countries (target) is necessary for positioning Indian higher education as a brand. Therefore, it is essential to identify the target countries and fields which could be promoted. The challenge is to contextualize the information thus collected to provide indications for developing programmes for promoting and recruitment of foreign students through education fairs, advertisements, media/internet etc.

***International student support-*** Provision of support services for international students in higher education is equally important. In the increasing global competition for the best students, the quality and attractiveness of an institution does no longer depend only on its academic, teaching and research standards: services to students have come to play an important role in the quality assessment – and thus the competitiveness of institutions. But what services should be available? How to respond to the needs and expectations of international students in particular? What kind of assistance/scholarships to be given? Who should provide support for them and how should it be organized? There is need to identify criteria and formulate models of good practices in service provision.

***Reaching out-*** In order to encourage student mobility, effective communication plays a very important role. Strategies for advertisement/dissemination of information regarding programmes/institutions, their best practices need to be put into place to attract foreign students. In addition to this, it is also required to provide a forum to these students to express their views and requirements. More international seminars and conferences need to be conducted to disseminate their research work.

***Infrastructural preparedness-*** There is a need to expand the capacities of institutions in terms of provisions for stay, medical facilities, banking, networking facilities, library, laboratory facilities etc in order to provide secure environment for stay.

***Educational programmes-*** Promotion of student mobility in the universities/college would require introduction of quality education programmes in the identified fields. In order to ensure the quality, these programmes need to be accredited by relevant authority. To provide an internationally high standard of education, acceptance of exchanges of credit and educational curricula is essential. Therefore, these issues should be addressed to enrol excellent students from around the world.

***Faculty development-*** While diversifying the classrooms, there is also the need to enhance the capacities of faculty to respond to such an increasing diversity. The support in the areas such as curriculum transaction/pedagogy, medium of classroom instruction, class management is of utmost necessity to facilitate quality higher education.

Thus, promotion of Indian higher education in other countries and attracting foreign students to institutions in the country have assumed larger proportions as integral components of the internationalization process. However, in order to expand the reach of Indian higher education, consideration needs to be given to how access to mobility can be broadened as at present many students are ‘socially excluded’ from mobility opportunities because of their financial situation, family and class background, and linguistic limitations. Simultaneously, it is required to see through the quality aspects

because without quality higher education, developing excellent human resources who can play an active role in international society, will remain an elusive goal of the internationalization of higher education.

## Conclusion

International student mobility in India is gaining significance due to a variety of reasons. Both inward and outward mobile students contribute to social, cultural and economic capital of the country. Due to its large, young and growing population and increasing national/economic development, the demand for higher education is rising and it has emerged as one of the major sending/source country. At the same time, it is also emerging steadily as a host destination and hub for some dimensions of higher education, especially ICT and culture-based education programmes. It is evident that programmes/strategies for promotion of higher education abroad would be successful only when they are implemented with will and devotion. As India has immense potential to market its educational programmes abroad, internationalization of higher education in the country requires an urgent attention.

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